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National Survey of Occupational Social Workers

NASW

Commission on Employment and Economic Support

NATIONAL SURVEY OF OCCUPATIONAL SOCIAL WORKERS

by

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Errata: Appendix D-6, Median Income in Relation to Function and Gender, page 80:

3rd Row Management and Administration, Males, now reads n = 9; should be n = 79.

NASW

Commission on Employment and Economic Support

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FOREWARD

As I reviewed this final report on occupational social work, I reflected on its original purpose as discussed in 1982. An increasing number of social workers were finding the workplace to be an excellent place to effect positive change. Creative models had evolved that supported both the internal and external provision of services. There was increasing discussion between academics and practitioners about what was needed and could be done. As we sat on that first task force, we felt there was a need to "let the data speak." We set out on a journey to plan the strategies and muster the support to meet this goal. The results of those germinal efforts are what you are about to read.

Dr. Robert Teare, Dr. Norma Taylor, Thom Gauthier, and their associates have done an excellent job in shepherding this work to its completion. The NASW members who have served on the task force and the planning committee should also be commended. This work will stand as a critical definition of social work's function in the workplace for years to come. Educators and practitioners will see it as a turning point.

While we are proud of and happy about this effort, it is important to note that "one can never step into the same river twice." The world of work continues to change, and so must the applications of social work knowledge to practice in the workplace. In the last four years, those of us who have practiced in the workplace have been exposed to unprecedented changes. As managers have focused their attention on the company's stockholders and the market place, work organizations throughout the world have been subject to mergers, acquisitions, hostile takeovers, reductions in force, and closures.

In many places the nature of work itself has changed. The rapid implementation of new information technology has redistributed the direction and flow of power within organizations. Whole levels of organizations have been deemed no longer necessary. The race for companies to be both high producers and low-cost competitors has left many individuals at a loss. Often, they experience troubling changes which may include losses of familiar work, experienced co-workers, job security, a sense of future career, loyalty to the company, and in many cases, even one's job.

As people experience these transitions, tremendous pressures act upon them. From my perspective, this set of circumstances creates critical points of growth for the people involved. Insofar as we, as social workers, are experienced and see ourselves as agents for positive change for both individuals and groups, we come ready to address the complex experience of work as we know it today. The difference between companies that will remain healthy and those that will not, to a great extent, depends on how they treat their human resources. If they choose to simply over-burden, burn out, and discard those resources, they will reap the eventual results of such policies. If, on the other hand, the leaders of the work force create a context for positive and creative change, they will reap the benefits of that approach. "What goes around, comes around!"

And so the work of refining the definition of occupational social work goes on a continuing process of growth and movement.

James L. Francek, ACSW
President
Watershed Corporate Services, Inc.
June, 1987

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The impetus for a mechanism that would represent the interests of occupational social workers began with their need for identity and recognition. Over the years that followed, many people played major roles in shaping the form that representation would take within NASW. The dedication and vision of the Commission on Employment and Economic Support, the National Occupational Social Work Task Force, the Occupational Social Work Planning Committee, and the National Survey Review Panel have been of tremendous value. These people have given generously of their time and expertise. They are, in alphabetical order, Marie Angell, private practitioner and Chair, California Chapter, Occupational Social Work Council; Ruth Antoniades, Executive Director, Sidney Hillman Health Center; Susan Bellinger, Vice President, Human Services Management Institute; Katherine Hooper Briar, School of Social Work, University of Washington; John Cox, Vice President for Community Affairs, Delta Airlines; Maurice Cummings, Administrator, Industrial Rehabilitation, United Auto Workers; Sylvia de Haas-Phillips, private consultant; Lazaro Diaz, Chief, Staff Counseling Service, The World Bank; James Francek, Manager, Employee Health Advisory Program, Exxon Corporation; Bradley Googins, School of Social Work, Boston University; Grace Harris, Dean, School of Social Work, Virginia Commonwealth University; Inderjit Jaipaul, School of Social Administration, Temple University; Otto Jones, President, Human Affairs; Rita Kaplan, Program Manager, Education Programs, Honeywell; Dan Lanier, Associate Director, Substance Abuse Program, General Motors Corporation; Dale Masi, School of Social Work and Community Planning, University of Maryland; Colonel Peter McNelis, Project Manager, U.S. Army Medical Research and Development Command; Laura Morris, Urban and Social Affairs Consultant, Digital Equipment

Corporation; Patricia Rottman, private practitioner and consultant; William Schleicher, Employee Assistance Coordinator, AT&T Technologies; Michael Sherraden, George Warren Brown School of Social Work, Washington University; Sandra Turner, Employee Assistance Representative, United Airlines; and Florence Vigilante, School of Social Work, Hunter College. Various members of the NASW national staff have also influenced events significantly. NASW staff liaison with various national and chapter committees was first provided by Thomas Gauthier, now NASW's Director of Field Services. For the past year, Norma Taylor, Senior Staff Associate, has taken over the NASW liaison and has provided valuable leadership in the projects undertaken by the various committees.

For some time, it was clear that information about work force and work activities involved in occupational social work was inadequate for professional and educational planning. Consequently, a national study was commissioned. Funding was obtained from a variety of sources, including the Exxon Corporation and the Program Advancement Fund of NASW. Robert Teare, Professor of Social Work at the University of Alabama, served as the principal consultant in this effort. In collaboration with the people named previously he has been responsible for the design of the survey instrument, formulation of the sampling procedures, and the analysis of the data.

To all of these people and to the more than one thousand individuals who took the time to complete the survey, NASW expresses its deep appreciation.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) has devoted considerable attention to the area of occupational social work. In 1982, NASW formed the National Occupational Social Work Task Force. This group, consisting of practitioners and scholars, was charged with identifying solutions to various issues and problems that were confronting people in this emerging area of social work practice. The NASW national office also designated a staff person to serve as liaison to the task force and to coordinate the efforts of the numerous chapter occupational social work committees. During the 1984-85 program year, NASW's Board of Directors authorized five commissions, one each on education, families and primary associations, health and mental health, employment and economic support, and justice. On July 1, 1985, the first four of these were established and funded. The group designated to represent the interests of occupational social workers was the Commission on Employment and Economic Support.

When the Occupational Social Work Task Force completed its work in 1984, its functions were taken over by the Occupational Social Work Planning Group. This group was asked to carry out the recommendations of the task force: convene a national conference and conduct a national survey of occupational social workers. The planning group went to work on both of these efforts. In late May of 1985, the first National Conference on Occupational Social Work was held in Boston, Massachusetts. It was well-attended and showed the full range of ideas and issues that this new field encompasses. At the conference, the first preliminary report on the findings of the national survey was presented. This document describes the findings and elaborates upon the survey results.

1. METHODS

The Survey

At the time the national conference was in its initial planning stages, there was a need for more information about the demography of workers in the field of occupational social work and about the work they performed. Consequently, the planning group began preparations to conduct a national survey to collect that information. Because of the newness of the field, clear definitions and consistent terminology were lacking. The planning group thus had to formulate operational definitions as well as develop practical strategies for data acquisition. A working definition, incorporated into the letter mailed to potential survey respondents (appendix A), described occupational social workers as "persons utilizing social work knowledge, skills, and values to provide services, programs, and policy directions with/for workers and work organizations." The wording broadly defined occupational social work practice by stating that it "may address a wide range of individual and family needs, relationships within organizations, and the broader issues of the relationship of the organization to the community."

The Occupational Social Work Planning Group decided to modify an existing instrument, the "Job Analysis Questionnaire" (JAQ) which had already been used to study the job activities of over 8,000 social workers.[1] The JAQ is a questionnaire using a self-reported task analysis designed to gather biographical data about a job incumbent and information about job tasks. Its extensive standardization provided a pool of over 150 tasks with demonstrated content validity for the broad spectrum of job activities carried out by social workers.

Two task forces were convened in the fall of 1984. These were small work groups comprising members of the planning group and academicians and

practitioners who knew the field of occupational social work. They were asked to modify the JAQ in two ways, by adding needed biographical questions and task statements, and by altering the terminology for task-related questions in order to make it more compatible with usage in the field. This was accomplished in two successive work sessions in which the second group revised the work of the first. Drafts of the revised JAQ were then circulated among NASW staff, members of the original task groups, and other interested parties. Copies were mailed to a small pilot sample of practitioners for completion and comment.

After final modification, the JAQ was ready for distribution. Its contents are summarized in table 1. A sample page may be found in appendix A.

The first mailing of 2,200 JAQ surveys took place in February 1985. As they were returned, they were checked for completeness and logged against the original mailing list. A second mailing went out in late March 1985 to those who had not responded to the first. In May 1985, an opportunity to respond was also extended to all attendees at the national meeting in Boston. As of June 30, 1985, 1,068 surveys (48 percent of the mailings) had been received. Because returns had all but ceased at that point, the data collection process was ended.

The Respondents

In attempting to deal with this relatively new practice area, the planning group considered it important to be as inclusive as possible, and consequently solicited information from social workers in a broad range of occupational settings regardless of membership in NASW. A variety of source lists were compiled. These included: (1) NASW chapter Occupational Social Work Committee rosters, (2) practitioner lists (potential vendors), (3) lists of military social workers, (4) membership lists from the Association of Labor/Management Administrators and Consultants on Alcoholism (ALMACA),

(5) lists of educators (potential consultants), (6) lists of people who had requested information about the upcoming national conference, and (7) lists of people who had requested information from NASW national or chapter offices about occupational social work. Duplications were purged and a mailing list containing approximately 2,200 names was compiled. This was the sampling frame (list of sampling units) on which the study was based.

TABLE 1. Contents of the JAQ

Cover letter
Personal information
Identification (name, address, respondent number)
Age
Sex
Ethnic origin
Degree(s) held
Licensing data
ACSW status
Job and department title[a]
Organizational associations[a]
Work experience
Reasons for hire
Emplyment setting
Employment functions
Employment auspice
Total annual income
Income sources
Disciplines worked with
Percentage income earned as occupational social worker
Number of colleagues in occupational social work
Plans for more workers
Predominant needs
Desired additional training[a]
Task data
Instructions and rating scales
Task statements (134)
Additional tasks (write-in space)

[a]Open-ended responses.

This method of compilation had several strengths. Of primary importance was the fact that survey respondents were not limited to membership in any one organization, so that diverse occupational functions, philosophies, and problems were represented. Furthermore, potential respondents ended up on the list through several mechanisms. Therefore, a "self-identification" bias was minimized. This was viewed as important in avoiding the "ecological fallacy,"[2] a problem common in attempts to generalize from survey findings. When the returns started coming in, it became clear that some people did not fit the criteria implied by the preliminary definition; it was obvious that screening of questionnaires needed to be done systematically. Therefore, a set of specific screening criteria was developed. The criteria were operationally defined by the answers to specific JAQ questions. Respondents were included if (1) there were no major omissions in their data; (2) they possessed a degree in social work (graduate or undergraduate [question 6]); (3) they stated they were currently earning some percentage of their income as an occupational social worker (question 22); (4) they had been employed for six months or more as an occupational social worker (question 15); (5) their job title indicated a probable relationship to occupational social work (question 11); (6) department or organizational affiliation indicated a probable relationship to occupational social work (question 12,13); (7) the focus of problems dealt with job-related material, such as stress, job security, substance abuse (question 25); (8) write-in comments indicated an occupational social work connection. Satisfaction of the first four criteria was considered necessary but not sufficient for including a questionnaire in the data set. More than anything else, it was the pattern of responses to all the above questions that determined the screening outcome. As a final check, the questionnaires of those who were initially excluded were reviewed

individually with NASW staff. On many occasions, the final screening decision could be based on personal knowledge of the respondent. When this process was complete, 499 respondents remained in the data file. This group represented 22.7 percent of the original mailing list and 46.7 percent of the returns.

Data Analysis

Information in the questionnaires was encoded into a format compatible with computer processing, and a coding manual was constructed. For each item, including those involving open-ended responses, a set of mutually exclusive and exhaustive content categories was derived. Each category was given a numeric code. This material was assembled into a booklet along with examples and instructions to coders. Using this material, data clerks converted the biographical data (part 1, questions 1-26) and the task data (part 2, questions 1-137) into a numeric form for entry onto magnetic tapes and subsequently onto microcomputer floppy disks. In all, 499 records (one for each respondent) were created. Each record contained a total of 222 data elements.

For analysis of the workforce, biographical data (part 1) provided a general description of the occupational social work labor force as well as characterizations of workers in various localities and organizational settings. Data were analysed using packaged statistical programs such as SPSS-X and STATPAC.[3] Each biographical data record contained 42 data elements. For each item, appropriate measures of central tendency and dispersion were calculated. Frequency distributions of the coding categories for most of the variables were computed. When appropriate, several variables (e.g., ethnic origin by gender by income) were cross-tabulated.

For analysis of work activities, 134 task items (part 2) were analyzed to determine the dimensions of practice, summarize the nature of practice in

occupational social work, and identify groups of respondents who seemed to be carrying out the same kinds of tasks. These data were put on magnetic tape and analyzed on a mainframe computer. The basic purpose of the analysis was to reduce the 134 task items to a more manageable descriptive framework, i.e., a limited number of practice clusters. To accomplish this, a hierarchical grouping procedure was used.[4] This technique permits any set of units of observation, such as people, organizations, or test items, to be combined into subgroups based on their similarity to one another. Each unit of observation is described in terms of a profile of measures. Using a criterion of profile similarity, all units in a sample are compared. The two with the most similar profiles are placed in a group. Groups are then formed iteratively until, eventually, all units in the sample are lumped into a single group. Obviously, this is the least precise description, because the final single group will contain many units with dissimilar profiles. The ideal solution is assumed to lie somewhere between the starting point, where there are as many groups as units of observation, and the end point, the final formation of one group. To determine the ideal solution, a measure of error is developed at each step in the grouping sequence. This error measure is usually some index of variability reflecting the differences among the profile points of the units within the various groups. A large jump in error from one stage to the next indicates that the groups just formed contain units that are too dissimilar. The set of groupings formed just before the large jump is then chosen as the best description.

This technique was used to carry out two cluster analyses. The first analysis dealt with the formation of "task clusters"--groups of tasks that could be shown to be highly related to one another. Respondents described their jobs by indicating how often they performed each of the 134 task statements. They selected the most appropriate number from 1 (not done) to 5

(almost always). These numbers were used to generate a profile for each task across all respondents in the sample. Two tasks that had similar patterns of occurrence (or lack of occurrence) across the sample had similar profiles and were grouped together. If the occurrence of one task had no bearing on the occurrence of another, there was no profile similarity and no grouping. By comparing all possible pairs of task profiles, the analysis systematically organized the tasks into groupings based on their mutual likelihood of being done (or not done) as a set. Each task was placed into the one group to which it most closely belonged. This represented an attempt to identify basic areas of practice within the field. The second analysis dealt with the formation of "worker clusters"--members of the work force with similar job profiles among the practice areas identified in the first cluster analysis. A profile of cluster scores was generated for each respondent. Two respondents who had similar profiles were grouped together. By comparing all possible pairs of profiles, the analyses systematically organized the respondents into subgroups based on the similarity of their practice profiles as described by the task clusters. Each respondent was placed into the one group to which he or she most closely belonged. This analysis was intended to establish whether or not there are basic areas of practice within occupational social work.

Each of the biographical data variables (part 1) was analyzed individually. Depending on level of measurement, appropriate measures of central tendency and dispersion were calculated. Frequency distributions of every biographical variable were obtained. For many variables, cross-tabulations were obtained, and appropriate measures of association (chi-square, correlation) were calculated and tested for statistical significance.

2. THE WORK FORCE

The number of variables was so extensive and the analyses were so numerous that all of the results cannot be be presented here. Therefore, only significant variables have been selected for inclusion in the narrative. More detailed presentations of other descriptive analyses may be found in a series of appendices.

Demography

As stated earlier, the biographical data were subjected to a series of descriptive statistical analyses. The most salient of these results are summarized in table 2 and are presented in detail in appendix B.

TABLE 2. Major Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic	Number	Percentage	Characteristic	Number	Percentage
Location			Licensed for social work		
Northeast	224	45.0	Yes	357	72.1
North central	91	18.2	No	138	27.9
South	91	18.2		495	
West	85	17.0			
Outside U.S.	7	1.4			
	478		ACSW Membership		
Ethnic origin			Yes	258	54.4
			No	216	45.6
Native America	2	.4		474	
Asian/Pacific Islander	2	.4			
Black	33	6.6			
Chicano/Mexican American	3	.6	Highest degree held		
Puerto Rican	5	1.0	Ph.D. (Social work)	23	4.6
Other hispanic	3	.6	Other Ph.D.	18	3.6
White	449	90.0	M.S. (Social work)	395	79.2
Other	2	.4	Other M.S.	32	6.0
			B.S. (Social work)	3	.6
	499		Other B.S.	8	1.6
			Other degrees	10	19.0
				489	

Data on state residence have been organized into census regions and are presented in table 2. Most respondents lived or worked near large metropolitan areas. Forty-five percent of them lived in the northeastern United States with over one-third (37.2 percent) located in the northeast corridor from Virginia to Massachusetts. There was a wide range in age (25-70 years; mean = 40.7 years), but the median age was that of a seasoned professional (39 years). The mean number of years of social work experience was 11.3 years (median, 10 years). In the total sample, respondents were about equally divided between women and men. They were predominantly white, with the most prevalent minority of color being a small group of blacks. Data on sex and ethnicity, however, have strikingly different distributions in different regions of the country (figure 1).

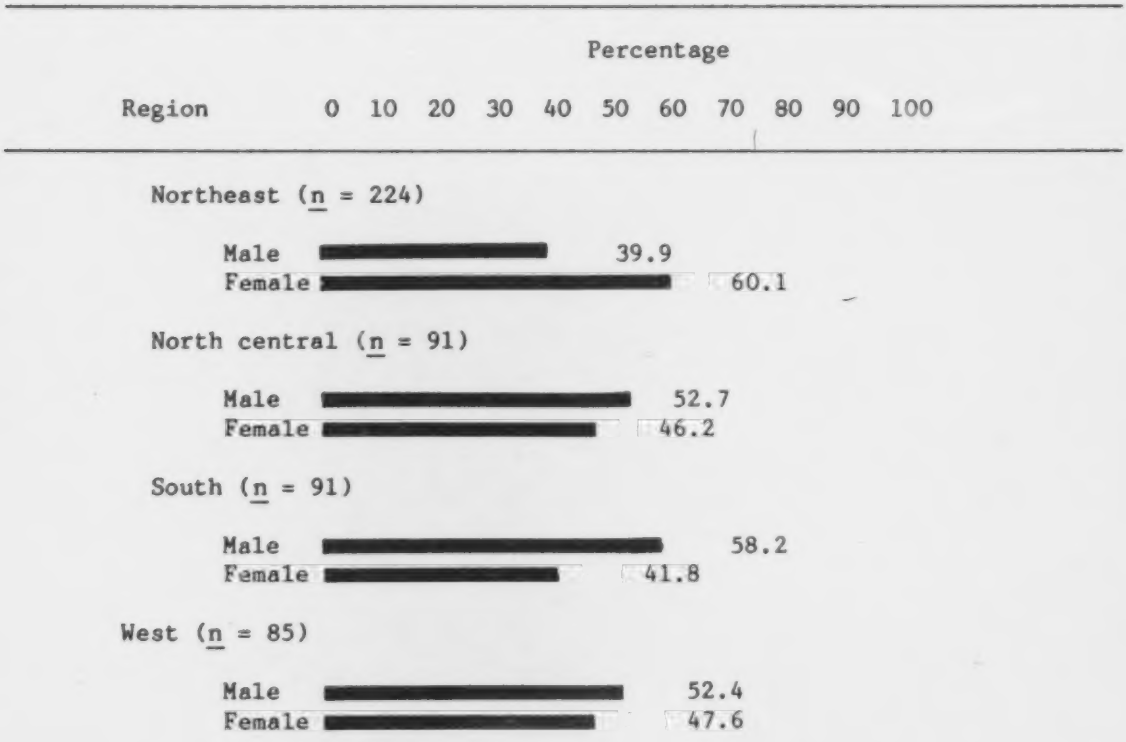

FIGURE 1. Respondent Gender by Region of the United States

The northeast region is different from the other three and contrasts most sharply with the South (chi-square = 11.52, $p<.01$). Only in the Northeast, did women constitute a majority of the occupational social work respondents. In the South, the numbers were almost reversed. In the north central and western states, men still outnumbered women. Thus it would seem that the predominance of women in the overall occupational social work sample was largely influenced by the demographics of the Northeast and held true only for that part of the country.

A comparable analysis was carried out to examine the diversity of respondents' ethnic origins in various regions of the country. As with gender, the picture differed considerably (chi-square(6) = 12.82, $p<.05$) from one region to another (figure 2). Respondents who lived in the Northeast and in the western states were quite diverse, and a substantial number of black and hispanic workers were represented. The sample of respondents from the southern states also had a good number of blacks and hispanics. Only the north central region of the country was truly homogeneous, with almost the entire sample consisting of white respondents.

Because of the range in age, there was also a wide range in work experience. The group, as a whole, was relatively seasoned; half of them had been working within the profession for 10 years or longer.

The great majority of the respondents had degrees in social work. Most of this was at the graduate level, with the M.S.W. (or some variant) being the most prevalent. As one might expect, a much smaller group had gone on for the doctorate or had entered the world of work with only undergraduate preparation. It is interesting to note that only 5.4 percent of the sample had obtained a B.S.W., either alone or in conjunction with other education. In general, the data showed evidence of a strong professional social work orientation in the

respondent group. Most were licensed as social workers and more than half were members of the ACSW (table 2).

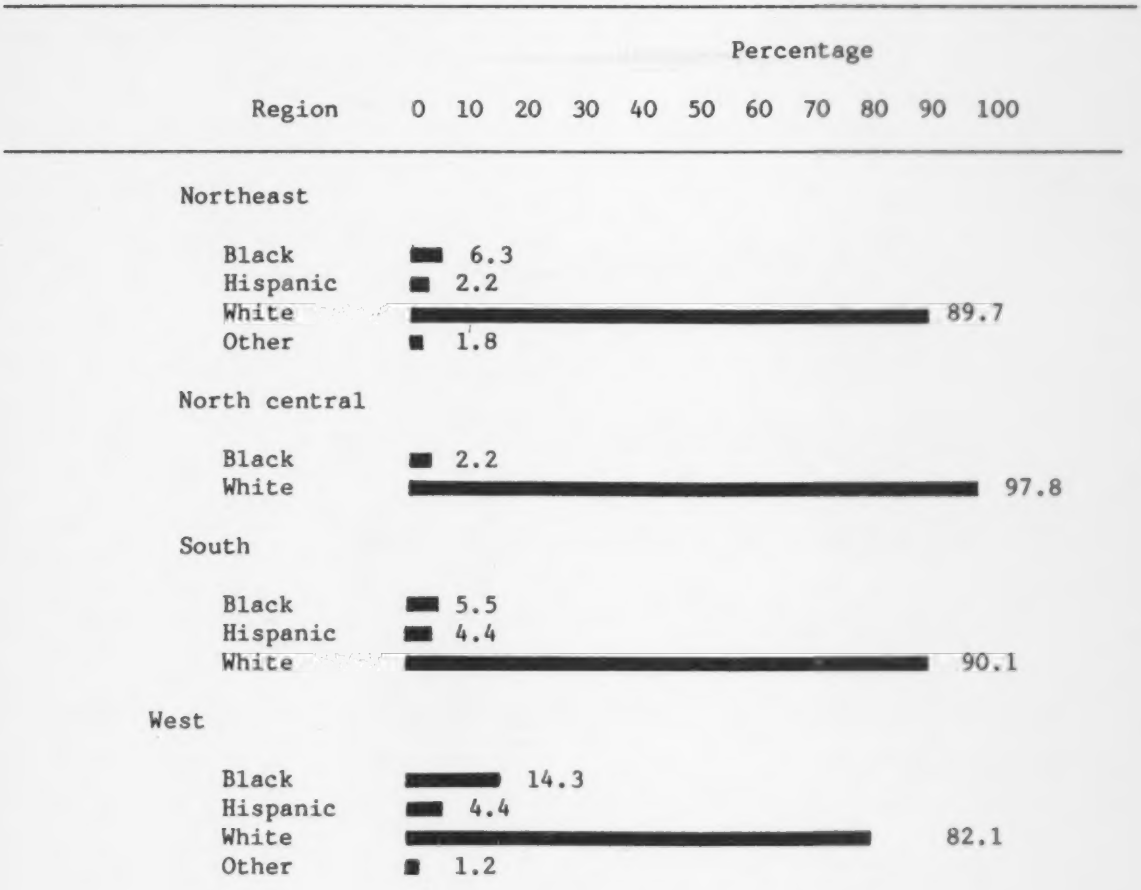

FIGURE 2. Ethnic Origin by Region of the United States

Employment

A number of data analysis runs were carried out on specific aspects of employment. These results are presented in appendix C. In some respects, the employment patterns revealed in this data set are consistent with other recently reported data dealing with the social work labor force.[5] There are, however, a number of characteristics that seem to be unique to the field of occupational social work.

Function. In the biographical data section of the JAQ, respondents were asked (question 18) to select a function that best described what they did on the job. Although this self-reported summary was not substituted for the task data submitted by respondents, an analysis of this question revealed some interesting findings.

One typically thinks of social work practice in terms of direct-practice activities. Certainly, the most frequent single employment function carried out by the respondents was that of direct service (40.2 percent) but these workers did not constitute a majority of the sample (see C-1). Most of the respondents (59.8 percent) reported that they were primarily engaged in some form of indirect service. A large number (38.4 percent) were involved in supervision, management, or administration. This was almost as large a cadre as that of the direct practitioners. This heavy involvement in management and supervision is a recurrent finding and is consistent with the patterns found in the NASW data bank survey and in the national job analysis conducted as part of the ACSW validation.[6] Cross-tabulations of the data on self-reported job functions were carried out against data on gender and ethnic origins. Neither of these analyses indicated that there were significant differences in the number of males and females (chi-square(8) = 7.24, $p = .05$) or black and white respondents (chi-square(2) = .88, $p = .64$) engaged in either direct service or management and supervision (see C-3 and C-4).

A number of individuals (11.3 percent) stated that their primary function was consultation. A subanalysis of this group of 56 respondents showed that almost half (48.2 percent) of them were private practitioners working either alone or in group practice. The remainder provided consultation, within the organization, to their employers, e.g., businesses, medical facilities, social service agencies, and universities.

Setting. Respondents were employed in many settings (see C-2). Given the orientation of the field, however, it is not surprising that business and industry were frequently cited as work settings. Over one-quarter of the respondents (26.2 percent) were employed by some type of business organization.

A substantial number of respondents were private practitioners. In all, 76 individuals (15.4 percent of the sample) stated that they practiced either alone or in a group. Cross-tabulation of the data from these people (see C-5) showed that this group was almost equally split among three functions: direct services to employees, management and administrative services, and consultation.

The presence of occupational social workers in labor unions was also reflected in the data. Thirty-nine respondents (7.8 percent) stated that they worked for unions (see C-5). Of these, most (59 percent) functioned in management or supervision. Fewer than one-third (28 percent) were involved in providing direct services to their members.

Previous surveys sponsored by NASW have indicated that medical and paramedical settings have become an important site for the practice of clinical social work. This is reconfirmed by the data from this survey. If one combines the data from three settings (hospitals, institutions, and outpatient facilities), 28.8 percent of the sampled respondents are included. Cross-tabulating the data for question 18 revealed that the primary job orientation of these people varied considerably (chi-square(24) = 92.43, $p<.01$) from one setting to another (see C-5). In hospitals and outpatient facilities, occupational social workers mainly provided direct services to employees, and involvement in management and administrative activities seemed to be secondary. Perhaps because of the way medical facilities are staffed, social workers may less often be in charge of their own operation in those settings. In

institutions, however, this pattern was reversed. Management, supervision, consultation, and policy development were the dominant functions of the respondents in those settings.

Auspice. The data on current employment auspice (see C-6) supported the information on work settings. Almost 62 percent of the respondents were employed in the private sector. If one includes those who were self-employed, the figure climbs to 69 percent. Various levels of public-sector employment encompassed almost 14 percent of the sample. The remainder (17.3 percent) were employed by the military services.

The distribution of males and females varied considerably with auspice (chi-square(7) = 62.65, $p<.01$), see C-7). Women were in the majority in the private sector. Overall, they made up 60 percent of that respondent group. Among the self-employed and public-sector respondents, men and women were about equally prevalent. In the military, the proportions were quite different. Most (86 percent) of the respondents were male.

Despite these differences in deployment, male and female respondents seemed to have fairly consistent primary job functions across the various employment auspices (see C-8 and C-9). Because of the fact that more than 20 percent of the cells had expected frequencies of less than five, statistical tests of association (e.g., chi-square) were not possible. Conclusions are therefore based on visual inspection. The only striking gender difference seems to be the higher proportion of males in the military who stated that their primary function was in direct services. It thus seems that the first point of social service contact for military personnel is likely to be a male social worker.

Reason For Being Hired. Respondents were asked to supply information on the relative importance of education and work experience in the decision to

hire them in their current position (see C-10). Sixty-one percent of them stated that some combination of social work education and training were important. Visual inspection of cross-tabulated data suggested that relative emphasis probably depended on the setting. In general, respondents who worked in business settings seemed to think that their employers placed more emphasis on various types of experience, including social work experience, than on a degree in social work by itself. This was also true of the private practitioners. On the other hand, respondents who worked in social service, hospital, and outpatient settings tended to report more frequently that the social work degree was the main reason they were hired. It may well be that administrators in these settings must place an emphasis on formal professional credentials in order to ensure compliance with licensing regulations or to qualify services for third-party payment.

Education and Training Wanted. When asked for an assessment of needed additional skills, the respondents came up with a wide range, but their answers also reflected a good deal of consistency. The many replies (see C-11) were grouped into a manageable set of fewer categories (table 3). Almost half of the people who replied to the question stated that they wanted to get additional training in subjects related to business operations. This group (48.3 percent) pinpointed specific technical skills such as personnel evaluation and program marketing, as well as broad academic subjects such as economics and general management. Many respondents desired skill and training in counseling and psychotherapeutic techniques; and in the detection and treatment of problems related to drug and alcohol abuse.

TABLE 3. Training and Education Wanted

Type of Skill Wanted	Number	Percentage
Technical/business specific	99	25.1
Business--broad	92	23.2
Counseling/psychotherapy	74	18.7
Alcohol or drug counseling	44	11.1
Technical/research	29	7.3
More social work training	20	5.1
General academic training	17	4.3
Health/medicine	14	2.8
Unclassifiable	6	1.5
Total	395	

Cross-tabulation with data on work settings showed that this pattern of perceived training needs varied predictably with setting. The desire for competence in specific technical areas seemed to be most prevalent in business, private practice, social service, state government, and college settings. Desire for more psychotherapeutic skill was most often reported by workers in hospitals, outpatient facilities, and, to some extent, business service organizations. Increased skill in working with drug and alcohol abuse was a frequently mentioned training need among workers in manufacturing organizations, hospitals, unions, group practice, and the federal government. As drug testing programs become more prevalent, this need is likely to increase.

Job and Department Title. One of the unknowns at the time the survey began was the terminology used to characterize the jobs and departments in

which occupational social workers carried out their functions. Respondents were asked to provide this information (summarized in C-12) using a write-in format. In an attempt to understand more clearly the extent to which social work had an overt presence, the job titles were regrouped into categories that better reflected subtle differences in language. The results of this recoding (in descending order of frequency) are summarized in table 4.

TABLE 4. Job Titles (Regrouped)

General Grouping to which Job Title Refers	Number	Percentage
Employee assistance	142	28.5
Business or organizational function	107	21.5
Outside consultant	50	10.0
Social work	45	9.0
Mental health/therapy	79	15.8
Social service	28	5.6
Organizational or human resource development	14	2.8
Health	13	2.6
Occupational and industrial social work	6	1.2
College or university staff	4	0.8
Unspecified	9	1.8
Total	497	

A similar grouping was made for the department affiliations reported by the respondents. The groupings may differ slightly from those in table 4, because they are recoded from write-in responses. They are listed, in descending

order, in table 5. To a great extent, the titles given to jobs reflected the departments to which they were attached. Again, employee assistance programs predominated. As with titles, departments dealing with social work or social services occurred relatively often, but "occupational social work" units were rare.

TABLE 5. Department Titles (Regrouped)

General Grouping to which Department Title Refers	Number	Percentage
Employee assistance	128	26.6
Mental health/therapy	79	16.4
Outside consultant	57	11.8
Health/employee safety	47	9.8
Social service	41	8.5
Business or organizational function	29	6.0
Organizational or human resource function	27	5.6
Social work	23	4.8
College or university function	6	1.2
Community affairs	3	.6
Occupational and industrial social work	2	.4
Unclassifiable	32	6.6
Total	482	

Recoded job and department titles were cross-tabulated with auspice to see if there appeared to be different organizational norms associated with terminology. A test for statistical significance (i.e., chi-square) was not possible because many expected cell frequencies were less than five. Visual inspection of the data matrix seemed to indicate that job and department

titles tended to differ as a function of job auspice. Titles and departments that specifically mentioned social work were most often found in medical settings (hospitals, outpatient facilities, nursing homes) and in the military. Social-service related titles were used in unions, social service organizations, and hospitals. Titles and departments referring to mental health, counseling, or psychotherapy tended to be used in hospitals or business settings. The military generally used titles that referred to disciplines or clinical functions. Business, membership organizations (e.g., unions), and the private sector relied heavily either on the "employee assistance" terminology or on titles that reflected generic organizational functions (e.g., development, personnel, human resources). In business, the most frequently mentioned clinical function was "mental health". Thus, the terminology used to describe occupational social workers and their activities seem to vary greatly from one setting or auspice to another.

Problems. Occupational social workers are perceived as dealing with a wide array of problems and issues. To shed light on this diversity, respondents were asked to list four needs, problems, or issues they dealt with in their work. Their responses to this question are summarized in C-13. The problems that stood out most clearly were alcoholism (mentioned by 76 percent of the sample), marital and family problems (75 percent), mental health problems (59 percent), drug addiction (45 percent), difficulties associated with job frustration and stress (37.5 percent), job security and job transition (15.9 percent), and health and physical fitness (13.8 percent). Data were cross-tabulated against job setting and auspice to determine if some problems were more predominant in certain settings or job auspices. As before, a high number of expected frequencies under five precluded tests of statistical significance. However, an inspection of the cross-tabluations

strongly suggests that occupational social workers deal with the same basic problems and needs regardless of the auspice or setting in which they work.

Hiring More Workers. Respondents were questioned about the prospects for more occupational social workers being hired by their organizations (see C-14 and C-15). In general, respondents in the sample were either uncertain or pessimistic about future opportunities. Many of them simply did not know. The greatest amount of uncertainty was expressed by those who were self-employed or who worked in state government. Of those who did express an opinion, 61.3 percent did not feel that additional people would be hired. The most pessimistic about increased employment prospects were those employed by manufacturing organizations and unions.

Income

The final major analysis carried out on the biographical data section of the JAQ related to annual income. Respondents reported their income by selecting from a list of income intervals of $5,000. Although this format prevented means from being calculated, medians were computed for a variety of cross-tabulated variables. Major patterns associated with income were quite clear.

The median annual income for all respondents was $32,952 (see D-1). To give this number some context, a secondary analysis was made of the salary breakdown of the 57,000 responses to NASW's 1982 Membership Data Bank Survey.[7] The reported median 1982 income was $21,303. Even allowing for some increase resulting from the three-year lag in the data, occupational social workers would seem to have substantially greater income when compared with the general population of NASW members. This aggregate salary figure, however, should be interpreted with caution. Median salaries were computed for respondents employed under different auspices. These are presented below in table 6. As

the table clearly indicates, the amount earned by occupational social workers differs greatly as a function of job auspice.[8]

TABLE 6. Breakdown of Median Income by Auspice

Auspice	Median Annual Income
Private profit-making (proprietary, manufacturing and service combined)	$38,268 (n = 156)
Private nonprofit (sectarian)	$22,999 (n = 10)
Private nonprofit (nonsectarian)	$27,684 (n = 135)
Self-employed	$33,054 (n = 35)
Public sector (all levels of government combined)	$29,687 (n = 68)
Military (all branches)	$35,177 (n = 86)

A small number of respondents reported earning income from multiple sources (see D-1). Most of these people were engaged in private practice and consultation. Like other practice areas of social work, the great majority reported that they earned their income working for others (see D-2).

There were striking differences in median income in relation to gender (chi-square(1) = 20.43, $p<.01$). Difference in the median income for male and female respondents (see D-3) persisted across all auspices (see D-4), settings (see D-5), and most employment functions (see D-6). (A secondary analysis of the 1983 NASW Data Bank Survey findings showed that, in those data, the median income for males was $25,682, but the median for females was $17,740.) Median incomes were calculated for each of the four major census regions

described earlier (see D-7). The medians for respondents in the various regions were as follows: Northeast, $31,397 (n = 223); North central, $33,268 (n = 91); South, $33,020 (n = 91); West, $34,332 (n = 84). The low median for the Northeast is somewhat surprising until one takes into account the fact that the sample from this region contained a significantly higher proportion of female respondents than any other (see page 11). It thus seems that regional differences in income can be accounted for by the income differential between males and females. Income levels of various ethnic groups in the sample also showed systematic differences. The median income for white respondents (n = 448) was $32,404, but while for minorities (all groups combined), the median was $36,388 (n = 50). As table D-8 suggests, the income difference associated with ethnicity did not alter the underlying pattern of differences between males and females. Although samples were small and statistical tests of significance were not possible, there was a persistent dip in income for women of almost every ethnic group. To simplify the presentation, the ethnic groups were combined and data on sex and ethnicity were cross-tabulated (table 7).

TABLE 7. Median Income in Relation to Gender and Ethnic Origin

	Ethnic Origin	
Gender	White	Minority
Male	$35,187 (n = 219)	$40,999 (n = 22)
Female	$29,624 (n = 228)	$31,249 (n = 28)

At this point, it is not possible to account for the higher income level of minorities. Data on ethnicity and setting, auspice, and function have been cross-tabulated. There seemed to be a slight tendency for fewer minorities to be employed in direct services, and for proportionately more to be engaged in supervision and management. There was also a tendency for more minority respondents to be employed in the public sector. Any effects of these variables, affirmative action programs, or other factors must, at this time, be left to speculation. The small number of minority respondents in the sample simply did not permit subsamples, matched for education level, work experience, job function, and setting, to be drawn and scrutinized.

3. WORK ACTIVITIES

Empirical Definition of Occupational Social Work

In the first section of the report, the screening criteria for inclusion in the sample were described. As the analysis of the data proceeded, a more specific set of definitions began to emerge. An "occupational social worker" was considered to be a person with social work training (at the undergraduate or graduate level) who, within an organizational setting, carried out any or all of these three functions: (1) direct provision of services to employees (including management) or clients of the organization; (2) supervision or management of an organizational unit charged with the responsibility of service provision to employees (including management) or clients; (3) formulation and implementation of policies relating to an organization's social role and responsibilities to its employees (including management) and the general public. The "services" provided by the occupational social worker cover a wide range of activities designed to enhance well-being, prevent problems, deal with crises, or provide short-term treatment in order to increase the capacity of individuals or groups to function in an organization. The social worker's relationship to the organization may be that of an employee, consultant (advisor), or contractor (vendor).

Task Clusters

The hierarchical analysis (see data analysis section of Methods) produced a more limited set of "task clusters" or "practice components".

The 21 task clusters are described in table 8.

TABLE 8. Task Clusters

1. Linkage[a] (.80)[b] (9 tasks)[c]

Engage in routine as well as aggressive activities designed to connect people with resources or networks that can provide services or support. Activities include determination of eligibility, advocating for clients with various providers, devising networks of individuals with similar backgrounds, arranging for transportation, locating people who need services, and preparing people for changes or termination of settings and services

2. Case planning and management (.90) (7 tasks)

Activities centered on the development and execution of a case plan for a specific client. Tasks include the intake and admission process, analyzing case background, assessing the urgency of the situation, and keeping records

3. Quality assurance (.80) (8 tasks)

Monitor activities, typically at the case or program level, for the purpose of assessing or maintaining quality as defined by regulations, performance standards or other criteria. Tasks include visiting potential providers to assess suitability, coordinating service planning to increase effectiveness, giving guidance to personnel to improve performance, ensuring that confidentiality and client rights are maintained, and altering individual service plans as needed

4. Therapeutic intervention (.82) (5 tasks)

Use specific therapeutic techniques to improve the behavior and adjustment of individuals. Activities include encouraging people to discuss feelings, referring people to appropriate resources, and discussing options that people may take in dealing with problems. Tasks are grounded within a formal therapeutic procedure or model

5. Groupwork (.70) (2 tasks)

Use specific therapeutic techniques in group situations to promote group adjustment. Also includes working with people in small groups to teach them how groups and group processes work

6. Crisis evaluation (.85) (3 tasks)

Make observations of people in order to determine whether or not an emergency exists. Problem areas typically relate to drug and alcohol abuse and mental illness or distress

7. Protective services (.82) (3 tasks)

Gather appropriate information and make personal observations to determine whether various types of abuse and neglect of children or adults is taking place. Also involves preparing individuals for transition to various living arrangements, e.g., foster homes, shelters, nursing homes

8. Teaching daily living skills (.63) (5 tasks)

Provide instruction about skills necessary for daily living both on and off the job. Activities include working with individuals to improve health and physical fitness, instructing in nonverbal behavior to improve communications, teaching money management, and giving information about developmental processes in order to improve problem-solving skills

9. Provision of tangible services (.58) (5 tasks)

Deliver "hard," tangible (not therapeutic) services associated with activities of daily living. Includes instructing in homemaking skills, assisting people to find papers and other necessary documents, taking part in recreational activities, locating missing people, and helping people find jobs

10. Self development (.76) (13 tasks)

Engage in activities designed to assess the effectiveness of one's functioning and the improvement of skills. Emphasis is placed on the development of insight into the adequacy of one's own performance. Tasks include reading journals and administrative and other job-related materials, attending workshops, having work-related discussions with colleagues and supervisors, planning one's workload, and developing working relationships with other professionals.

11. Advocacy and adversarial negotiation (.75) (9 tasks)

Take a partisan stance or engage in aggressive action on behalf of individuals (clients or workers), programs, or organizations. The essence of the activities is that they are carried out in an adversarial climate. Tasks include bargaining with management or unions, advocating for victims of harassment, abuse, or discrimination, initiating or participating in legal proceedings, and testifying at public hearings

12. Interpersonal problem-solving (.64) (6 tasks)

Meet and talk with people to assist them in dealing with a variety of personal and work-related problems. Activities include familiarizing oneself with background information, gaining the cooperation of hostile individuals, helping people to work through problems associated with job and career changes, and instructing supervisees in dealing with case situations

13. Mediation or group process (.70) (4 tasks)

Serve as a mediator and participant in various group interactions. Situations are usually task- or job-oriented. Activities include resolving work grievances or disputes, clarifying work and team member roles, and assisting group participants to reach a consensus decision

14. Skill-based instruction (.79) (9 tasks)

Provide instruction to people, often workers or subordinates, on specific skills usually related to improving job performance, e.g., evaluating personnel, speaking, writing, adherence to personnel policies. Activities include conducting on-the-job training and evaluating learning in trainees

15. Formal classroom instruction (.76) (5 tasks)

Carry out training in workshops, the classroom, or other organized settings. Activities include planning, designing curricula, making logistic arrangements, constructing examinations, and assessing the attainment of learning objectives. Content of instruction is usually work-related but varies widely, e.g., improving management style, coping with job stress

16. Staffing (.92) (11 tasks)

Carry out activities associated with the establishment of a work force at the program, unit, or organization level. Activities include making work assignments, scheduling shifts and hours, reviewing workloads, reading records to ensure compliance with standards, orienting new staff, making performance evaluations, and assembling staff data, e.g., payroll

17. Ongoing program management (.74) (5 tasks)

Activities associated with the management and maintenance of an existing program or unit. The major emphasis is on the continuance of smooth ongoing operation rather than the introduction of change. Tasks include documenting the need for repairs to equipment and facilities, purchasing and keeping track of supplies, making people aware of safety regulations, and inspecting buildings for hazards and security

18. Fiscal management (.84) (7 tasks)

Secure, allocate, or monitor the expenditure of funds at the program, unit, or organization level. Activities include estimating funding requirements, preparing budgets and budget applications, recording financial expenditures, reviewing vendor reports, approving payments, and compiling billing data

19. Data analysis and synthesis (.70) (4 tasks)

Compile and synthesize data in order to summarize information. Activities include designing and carrying out studies and surveys, preparing reports, and presenting the findings in oral or written format

20. Program development (.86) (11 tasks)

Design, promote, and implement a new program or engage in activities associated with major alterations in existing programs. Activities include providing information, news releases, and publicity, inferring goals from needs-analysis data, converting program goals into specific plans, policies, and procedures, and gathering information to assess program effectiveness

21. Community outreach (.72) (9 tasks)

Serve as a source of expertise and information to the community. Activities include giving technical assistance to self-help groups, getting information from and giving information to organizations and other resources. Includes making public appearances and assessing needs at the community level

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[a]The label is simply an attempt to distill the content of the tasks that make up the cluster.

[b]Kuder-Richardson coefficient of internal consistency (KR_{20}). It is an index of reliability and represents the average correlation between all pairs of tasks in the cluster. A correlation with a value of .60 or greater is considered sufficient. The upper limit is 1.00.

[c]Number of tasks in the cluster.

As inspection shows each of the components is quite autonomous. In most cases, there is a logic (at the practice level) for the way in which the tasks ended up being grouped together. Also, the high correlation coefficients for almost all the clusters further support the autonomy of separate clusters.

Relationships Among the Clusters

The overall matrix of 220 possible correlations is presented in table 9. The clusters have been arranged on the basis of the size of their mutual correlation coefficients. Those that are most highly correlated are placed next to one another. A positive correlation indicates that workers who engaged in the tasks in one cluster also tended to carry out the tasks in the other or vice versa (i.e., not doing one meant not doing the other). A low correlation between two clusters means that they were independent; carrying out one set of tasks had no bearing on doing those in another cluster. A negative correlation between two clusters means that involvement in one cluster was associated with a lowered likelihood of involvement in the other. On the basis of the patterns of correlation coefficients, the clusters seem to fall into three major entities, or "dimensions of practice" -- direct practice, practice core, and indirect practice.

Table 9 Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Task Clusters

	(1) Linkage	(2) Case Planning and Management	(3) Quality Assurance	(4) Therapeutic Intervention	(5) Groupwork	(6) Crisis Evaluation	(7) Protective Services	(8) Teaching Daily Living Skills	(9) Provision of Tangible Services	(10) Self Development	(11) Advocacy and Adversarial Negotiation	(12) Interpersonal Problem-solving	(13) Mediation or Group Process	(14) Skill-based Instruction	(15) Formal Classroom Instruction	(16) Staffing	(17) Ongoing Program Management	(18) Fiscal Management	(19) Data Analysis and Synthesis	(20) Program Development	(21) Community Outreach
(1) Linkage	-	.61	.59	.58	.32	.48	.51	.47	.56	.41	.55	.50	.30	.22	.15	.30	.25	.07	.05	.15	.34
(2) Case Planning and Management		-	.75	.81	.19	.74	.60	.56	.20	.36	.19	.32	.08	-.14	.11	.05	.03	-.12	-.16	-.12	.06
(3) Quality Assurance			-	.71	.17	.65	.46	.46	.24	.58	.38	.49	.28	.19	.24	.34	.25	.16	.12	.22	.26
(4) Therapeutic Intervention				-	.27	.66	.47	.58	.20	.49	.26	.40	.21	.00	.19	.08	.04	-.11	-.11	-.02	.12
(5) Groupwork					-	.21	.38	.41	.32	.10	.34	.37	.38	.33	.32	.24	.17	.00	.06	.06	.29
(6) Crisis Evaluation						-	.53	.44	.14	.34	.25	.34	.15	-.06	.21	.08	.07	-.05	-.02	.00	.13
(7) Protective Services							-	.52	.36	.16	.25	.35	.16	.06	.12	.14	.17	-.12	-.10	-.06	.22
(8) Teaching Daily Living Skills								-	.21	.29	.20	.34	.28	.14	.33	.13	.11	-.12	-.07	-.03	.16
(9) Provision of Tangible Services									-	.13	.47	.33	.23	.29	.10	.18	.27	.15	.13	.14	.30
(10) Self Development										-	.36	.53	.42	.35	.31	.38	.26	.29	.30	.49	.36
(11) Advocacy and Adversarial Negotiation											-	.58	.50	.45	.25	.44	.38	.34	.31	.41	.42
(12) Interpersonal Problem-solving												-	.46	.52	.26	.50	.39	.24	.25	.38	.34
(13) Mediation or Group Process													-	.56	.37	.49	.33	.30	.34	.44	.33
(14) Skill-based Instruction														-	.44	.72	.52	.46	.42	.61	.39
(15) Formal Classroom Instruction															-	.24	.21	.26	.39	.43	.30
(16) Staffing																-	.56	.50	.32	.55	.34
(17) Ongoing Program Management																	-	.51	.32	.44	.26
(18) Fiscal Management																		-	.52	.68	.33
(19) Data Analysis and Synthesis																			-	.68	.37
(20) Program Development																				-	.51
(21) Community Outreach																					-

This partition can be made clearer by looking at table 10 where the 21 clusters are again presented in groupings based on mutual intercorrelations. In a given row, each correlation coefficient is the average correlation of a given task cluster with all the clusters in each of the three major dimensions.

Direct Practice. In the upper left hand corner of table 9 a triangular configuration of correlations among nine clusters (Numbers 1-9) represents the direct practice dimension. On the average (table 10) the direct practice clusters also correlate highly with themselves, have lower correlations with the core clusters, and are independent of the indirect practice clusters. Despite manifest content differences, these clusters all have a common link in that they all involve the provision of direct services to clients. The clusters in the direct practice area contain a mixture of cognitive, therapeutic, and concrete service activities. The array of techniques runs the gamut from counseling and psychotherapy to the establishment of linkages and helping networks. The "blend" varies with employment auspice and setting.

Indirect Practice. At the lower right hand corner of table 9 is another triangular configuration among eight clusters (Numbers 14-21). On the average (table 10), these indirect practice clusters are independent of direct practice clusters, have lower correlations with core clusters, and are highly correlated with themselves. Indirect practice involves a range of organizational activities and covers the typical array of supervisory, managerial, and planning functions. These include staffing, training, organizing, human development, fiscal, and program management. Involvement can take place at a number of organizational levels, e.g., unit, program, department, division, or system (corporate).

TABLE 10. Average Pearson Product-Moment Correlations with Practice Dimensions

Major Dimension	Practice Cluster	Direct Practice	Core	Indirect Practice
Direct				
	1. Linkage	.51[a]	.43	.18
	2. Case planning and management	.56	.24	-.03
	3. Quality assurance	.44	.43	.22
	4. Therapeutic intervention	.53	.34	.02
	5. Group work	.28	.30	.19
	6. Crisis evaluation	.48	.27	.05
	7. Protective services	.48	.23	.05
	8. Teaching daily living skills	.46	.27	.08
	9. Provision of tangible services	.28	.29	.19
Core				
	10. Self development	.32	.47	.34
	11. Advocacy and adversarial negotiation	.32	.48	.38
	12. Interpersonal problem solving	.38	.53	.36
	13. Mediation or group process	.23	.46	.39
Indirect				
	14. Skill-based instruction	.11	.47	.51
	15. Formal classroom instruction	.20	.30	.32
	16. Staffing	.17	.45	.46
	17. Ongoing program management	.15	.34	.40
	18. Fiscal management	-.01	.29	.47
	19. Data analysis and synthesis	-.00	.30	.43
	20. Program development	.04	.43	.56
	21. Community outreach	.21	.36	.36

[a]Numbers are average Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients. Each represents the mean correlation between the practice dimension and the tasks or clusters listed to the left of the table.

Practice Core. The final dimension discernible in table 10 involves a set of 4 clusters (Numbers 10-13) that correlate at roughly the same level with all the clusters in the matrix. This result is borne out in table 9, which shows that these core clusters have a moderately positive average correlation with both direct and indirect practice elements. These clusters

thus belong to neither group and yet to both. In effect, they "straddle" the matrix of relationships. For this reason and because their content deals with problem-solving, cognitive processes, and generic interpersonal skills, they can be viewed as making up a "core" component of occupational social work practice.

Summary

This aggregate picture of work activities contained some predictable aspects and some surprises. As previous studies have shown, the practice of social work involves two distinct areas: the provision of direct services (direct practice) and the management of the people and vehicles (programs, units, organizations) that provide those services (indirect practice). These data strongly suggest that the same pattern characterizes occupational social work as well.

The correlation data among the clusters verifies another finding from previous studies of practice: direct practice and indirect practice are independent of one another because the correlations between the two sets of clusters are quite low (tables 8 and 9). Within the job context, this means that workers who carry out the first type of activity will typically not be involved in the other. Furthermore, as the biographical data clearly show, each dimension of practice has a substantial cadre of workers associated with it. By self report, respondents divided themselves into direct-service workers (40.2 percent) and indirect service workers (59.8 percent).

One of the unique aspects of the data is associated with the practice core. In this data set, it is clear that carrying out occupational social work in a variety of host settings requires organizational adaptive skills in order to survive or thrive. The data make explicit the need for the capacity to mediate, solve problems, and function in an adversarial capacity within the

constraints laid down by an organization. The tasks associated with internal "marketing" are thus made more clear.

4. WORKERS IN EMPLOYEE ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS

Up to this point, it has been the intent to describe the general nature of the work force and work activities of a comprehensive sample of occupational social workers. This group is heterogeneous on just about every descriptive parameter one can imagine. Given this diversity, one can understand the nature of each segment of the work force only by separating each group for special analysis. Such an ambitious undertaking is clearly beyond the scope of this study.

Because of its prominence in this sample, the subgroup of respondents who identified themselves as being associated with employee assistance programs (EAP's) has been given particular attention. This subsample was identified by responses given to questions 11 and 12 of the JAQ. Of the 499 respondents, 143 (28.6 percent) stated they held titles or worked in departments with this designation. (The reader should remember that, in the present sample, job and departmental designations varied greatly and often bore no resemblance to the real functions being carried out. Consequently, this group will not include those workers who might do the similar things but have different titles.) Of these, 52 individuals listed their primary employment function (question 18) as being "direct service" and 74 indicated "supervision, management, or administration." The analyses that follow are based on data from these two subgroups.

Direct-service Workers

Biographic Data. A majority (61.5 percent) of the direct-service EAP workers were female. As in the total sample, most (84.6 percent) were white, with only 13.5 percent blacks. Almost all (94.1 percent) had graduate training, the most prevalent degree being the M.S.W. (86.5 percent). Most

(71.2 percent) were licensed as social workers, but as many were members of the ACSW as were not. Employers placed value on social work training and experience. Over 61.6 percent of the respondents stated that some combination of these two factors resulted in their present employment.

As with the larger group, EAP service providers were employed in diverse settings. Businesses, both manufacturing and service, were frequent (40.4 percent) employers. Hospitals and institutions (26.9 percent) followed closely behind.

The term employee assistance is one that seems to be used more frequently by some employers than by others. It seems to be popular in the private sector, because 69.3 percent of the self-reported EAP respondents were thus employed. None of them were employed by the military. The median salary of the 52 direct service EAP respondents ($30,713) was on a par with that of the direct-service workers in the entire sample ($30,792).

Paradoxically, these direct-service workers most often wanted skills and knowledge related to the indirect-service area. Over 42.4 percent of them stated they would like to be better prepared in areas such as general management, organization development, marketing, personnel management, and general administration.

Practice Profile. The task data generated by the direct-service workers was analyzed (figure 3). The X-axis lists the 21 task clusters used in tables 8 and 9. The Y-axis is calibrated in standard scores (t scores). Calculation of the t scores was straightforward. For the entire sample, mean and standard deviation were calculated for the frequency ratings of each task. Each respondent's raw score was then converted into a derived score, which reflected its distance (in standard deviations) above or below the total sample mean. The means and standard deviations of each of these new distributions were the same (mean = 0.00, standard deviation = 10.00). This

common scale permits direct comparisons across any set of tasks (and clusters) and among any respondent group. A dotted reference line has been drawn across the figure corresponding to the average score (0.00) of the sample. Profile points above the line indicate that a group's involvement with that task cluster was above the mean of the sample. The higher the point on the scale, the greater the involvement compared with the rest of the sample. Negative profile points signify less-than-average involvement in that task cluster compared with the rest of the sample. The profile thus depicts the task emphasis of a given group relative to all the respondents in the sample.

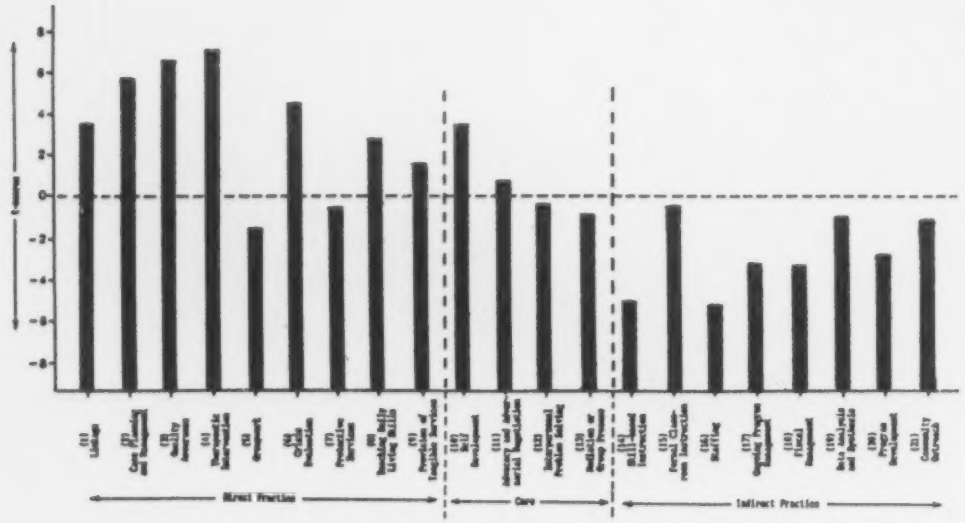

Figure 3. Profile of Direct Service EAP Workers

Not surprisingly, these people hade a high involvement in the task clusters making up direct practice. This involvement was not uniform, however, across all the task clusters in that dimension. Most of the direct-service activities of the EAP workers were associated with the processes of linkage and networking, specific case planning and management, monitoring

workers and clients to assure service effectiveness, carrying out therapeutic intervention (counseling, referrals, individual problem-solving) on an individual level, and assessing risk and crisis levels. According to their answers to question 25 (needs, problems dealt with), most of these interventions related to drugs, alcohol, and marital or family problems. The pattern of individual casework is further confirmed by the relatively low involvement of these workers with formal groups in a therapeutic context. As one moves to the right of the figure most of the profile points drop below the average of the sample. As the correlations would lead one to predict, these direct-service workers (like most others) did not have much involvement with training, formal instruction, staffing and the other clusters that go to make up indirect practice.

Supervisors and Managers

Biographical Data. Supervisors, managers, and administrators were combined into a single group because only three respondents indicated that they were supervisors. Although somewhat similar in some demography to the direct-service EAP workers, there were some important differences. The majority (58.1 percent) of the group were female and 90.5 percent of them were white. Blacks made up 5.4 percent of this group. The range of degrees seemed to be broader than their direct-service counterparts; 75.7 percent held the MSW, and over 15 percent had masters' degrees in other fields, such as, business, public health, or public administration. Most (82.4 percent) were licensed in social work and, as with the others, there was about an even split with regard to ACSW membership. Relatively few (9.5 percent) indicated that they were hired solely because of their social work degree. Slightly more (16.2 percent) singled out social work experience as the reason for being hired. Most attributed their employment to some combination of education and

hired. Most attributed their employment to some combination of education and work experience (often in social work). Only 4.1 percent indicated that experience other than in social work was the primary reason for employment in their present position.

Employment settings were diverse, but the private sector dominated (81.1 percent) the group. Most of these people (48.7 percent) worked for nonprofit organizations. One third of the sample worked for various types of business or manufacturing organizations. Almost 10 percent stated that they were employed by various levels of government. Again, very few (1.4 percent) were employed in the military.

The median salary ($35,294) of EAP administrators was on a par with the median of the entire sample of administrators ($35,443).

The desire for training and expertise related to administration and management came through clearly: 63.8 percent of these respondents wanted more knowledge and skill in a wide range of organizational topics, e.g., general management, marketing, finance, personnel. Some (14.9 percent) specifically singled out the need for training in organizational development.

Practice Profile. The practice configuration of the supervisors and managers is depicted in figure 4, and presents quite a different picture. With the exception of a high involvement in quality assurance, which includes monitoring work performance and supervision, the activities of this group were centered on core and indirect practice, the most heavy involvement being in the areas of staffing, financial management, and program development. This reflects an active stance because many programs are in the planning or implementation state. Ongoing program management did not reflect the same heavy investment of time and effort.

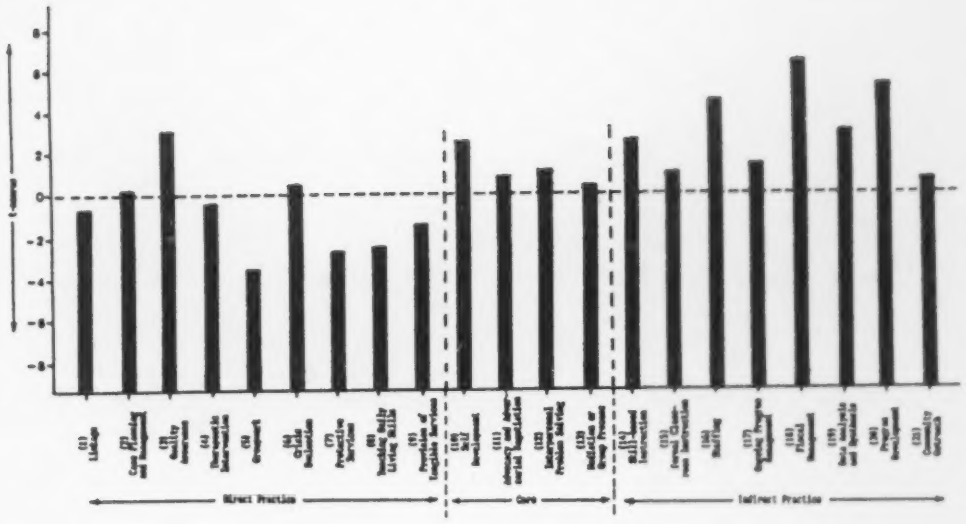

Figure 4. Profile of EAP Managers and Supervisors

This group also differed from the direct-service workers in terms of the emphasis on core activities. As stated earlier, these clusters can be viewed as "adaptive skills" required for functioning in an organization. As a comparison of the two figures shows, the EAP managers were more involved in these clusters than the direct-service workers. The supervisors and managers were more involved in the clarification of work roles and assignments, they mediated work disputes, and helped groups to reach consensus decisions. They solved personal and work-related problems, and gained the cooperation of hostile individuals. They bargained and negotiated with management or unions, advocated on behalf of clients and employees, and worked to develop relationships with other professionals.

Both groups (direct-service workers and managers) indicated a relatively high involvement in self-development activities. Tasks in this cluster have as

their objective the assessment of one's effectiveness and the improvement of one's skills. Given the developmental nature of many of their programs, this emphasis on skill-building is not surprising.

5. CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This study has shown that occupational social work practice is a heterogeneous area of work. This was really no surprise because theoretical[9] as well as empirical[10] studies have consistently pointed to the diversity of activities subsumed under the rubric of social work.

This survey has produced a data base of biographical and job-related information. The value of such a data base lies in the rigor with which its units of observation were screened and collected as well as in the care by which the data file was assembled. The procedures used in both processes have been made explicit in this report and can therefore be evaluated scientifically.

Diverse and comprehensive data dealing with many facets of occupational social work have been assembled and organized. Such a data set, accessible through a membership organization such as NASW, can be a valuable source of information. The usefulness of such data, however, are limited by time. In a field as new as occupational social work, information must be supplemented and updated on a regular basis, to ensure its usefulness for planning, education, and policy development for some time to come.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

[1]For early work with the Job Analysis Survey, see R.J. Teare, "A Task Analysis of Public Welfare Practice and Educational Implications," in F.W. Clark. et al., eds., The Pursuit of Competence in Social Work (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1979) pp. 131-145; and Teare, "Social Work in a Public Welfare Setting" (New York: Praeger, 1981).

[2]The "ecological fallacy" refers to the danger of making assertions about individuals as the unit of analysis based on the examination of groups or other aggregations. This important concept is discussed in E. Babbie, The Practice of Social Research (4th ed., Belmont, CA.: Wadsworth, 1986).

[3]Walonick Associates, STATPAC (Version 6.0) (Minneapolis: Walonick Associates, 1986); M.J. Norusis, SPSS^X (Chicago: SPSS Inc., 1984).

[4]A complete discussion of the techniques associated with cluster analysis can be found in M. Lorr. Cluster Analysis for Social Scientists (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983).

[5] Membership Survey Shows Practice Shifts" NASW News (November, 1983), pp. 6-7.

[6]The first results of the nationwide job analysis of social workers can be found in R.J. Teare, "Validation of the ACSW Examination: Implications for Education and Practice," paper presented at the 30th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Detroit, 1984. More detailed analyses are currently being prepared for publication.

[7]"Membership Survey Shows Practice Shifts", pp. 6-7.

[8]Most tests on the significance of differences in income amoung various groups involved the Median Test or its extensions. Its premise is simple. If two groups, for example, males and females, are really samples from a population with a common median, as many members of each group should be above and below the median of the combined sample. Using the chi-square statistic, the Median test examines this property. Discussion of the technique may be found in S. Siegal, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956).

[9]See M.J. Austin, Designing Human Services Training Based on Worker Task Analysis." in F.W. Clark, et al., eds., The Pursuit of Competence in Social Work,pp. 146-160; R. Dolgoff, Basic Skills for Practice in the Human Services: A Curriculum Guide," in F. Loewenberg and R. Dolgoff, eds., Teaching of Practice Skills in Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare and Other Helping Services (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1971); R. Federico, The Social Welfare Institution (Lexington, Mass.: Heath, 1973); R. J. Teare and H. McPheeters, Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1970).

[10] See M.J. Austin, "Defining the Nature of Human Service Work for Personnel System Management," Administration in Social Work, 1 (1981), pp. 31-41; R.J. Teare, A Task Analysis of Public Welfare Practice and Educational Implications" ; R.J. Teare, Social Work Practice in a Public Welfare Setting; R. J. Teare, "Validation of the ACSW Examination: Implications for Education and Practice".

APPENDIX A. Cover Letter and
Sample Page from the Job Analysis Questionnaire

APPENDIX A-1. Cover Letter

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS, INC.

7981 Eastern Avenue, Silver Spring, MD 20910 (301) 565-0333

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Los Angeles, California

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
Mark G. Battle, ACSW

January 23, 1985

Dear Colleague:

The National Association of Social Workers is taking a lead role in developing the field of occupational social work. In the recent past, the Association has created the National Occupational Social Work Planning Committee, established "Work Is a Family Affair" as the 1985 Social Work Month theme, and made the decision to sponsor the National Conference on Occupational Social Work, scheduled for May 29 - June 1, 1985. Now, to serve the needs of occupational social workers more effectively and to provide guidance to the field, NASW is conducting a national survey. Your cooperation in this project will benefit both the field and the profession.

The definition of occupational social work for the purposes of the survey has been made broad: "Persons utilizing social work knowledge, skills, and values to provide services, programs, and policy directions with/for workers and work organizations. Occupational practice may address a wide range of individual and family needs, relationships within organizations, and the broader issues of the relationship of an organization to the community. These may include but are not limited to such areas as employee assistance programs/chemical dependency, health promotion, family supports and child care, human resource development, organizational development, career development and training, work with the unemployed, corporate responsibility, employee benefits, occupational health and safety, and job development."

Within the next two weeks, you will receive a questionnaire in the mail. You will be asked to provide demographic information and to indicate your job tasks. Although personal data is requested, only aggregate data will be reported. Please complete the questionnaire as soon as you can. A stamped, self-addressed envelope will be enclosed for your convenience.

Data from the survey are important. They will chart the Association's course as it helps to shape the future of occupational social work. Preliminary

findings from the survey will be presented at the National Conference on Occupational Social Work in Boston. A more complete report will be submitted to the Board of Directors and all chapter occupational social work committees. A summary of the final report will be published in the NASW NEWS.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely yours,

Robert P. Stewart

Robert P. Stewart, ACSW
President

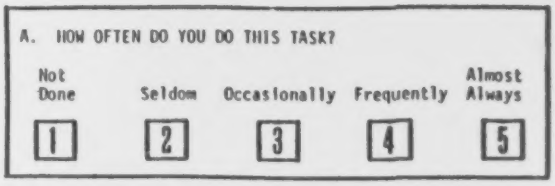
Sincerely yours,

Ruth E. Antoniades

Ruth E. Antoniades, Chair
Occupational Social Work
Planning Group

RPS:RA:NJT:ss

APPENDIX A-2. Typical Page from Task Section of JAQ



		HOW OFTEN?
77.	Plan a course or training activity, designing the objectives, making up the schedule and/or arranging facilities in order to improve skills and knowledge.	4
78.	Talk with individuals and/or their relatives about problems in order to reassure, provide support, or reduce anxiety.	5
79.	Instruct individuals how to do a job, helping with tasks when appropriate, in order to provide on-the-job training.	3
80.	Explain program or organizational needs to people, individually or in groups, in order to encourage them to contribute their time and/or to donate other resources.	4
81.	Coordinate service planning with staff, other providers, family members, significant others in order to make the delivery of services to individuals most effective.	2
82.	Organize or take part in a campaign or demonstration in order to persuade public officials or other decision makers to establish or change policies or laws.	1
83.	Contact and/or work with representatives of organizations in order to develop working relationships.	3
84.	Estimate or analyze funding requirements to prepare or review budgets for new or existing benefits or programs.	2
85.	Instruct individuals how to interpret or understand non-verbal behavior in order to increase their communication skills.	1
86.	Describe and explain cultural patterns, job situations, service options to people who are new to or unfamiliar with your community.	1
87.	Review case records, co... ...iate individuals, in order to evaluate progress ... ...s if needed.	2
	...edule/coordin... ...c., in order to ...	3

APPENDIX B. Demographic Data

APPENDIX B-1. State and Regional Location of Respondents

Region	State	Number	Percentage[a]
Northeast			
	Connecticut	27	5.4
	District of Columbia	5	1.0
	Massachusetts	31	6.2
	Maine	3	.6
	New Hampshire	5	1.0
	New Jersey	18	3.6
	New York	107	21.4
	Pennsylvania	27	5.4
	Vermont	1	.2
	Total	224	45
North Central			
	Illinois	29	5.8
	Indiana	5	1.0
	Kansas	2	.2
	Michigan	15	3.0
	Minnesota	10	2.0
	Missouri	2	.4
	North Dakota	1	.2
	Nebraska	2	.4
	Ohio	12	2.4
	South Dakota	1	.2
	Wisconsin	8	1.6
	Total	91	18.2
South			
	Arkansas	1	.2
	Delaware	1	.2
	Florida	9	1.8
	Georgia	4	.8
	Kentucky	2	.4
	Louisiana	5	1.0
	Maryland	11	2.2
	Mississippi	2	.4
	North Carolina	4	.8
	Oklahoma	2	.4
	Puerto Rico	1	.2
	South Carolina	2	.4
	Tennessee	2	.4
	Texas	30	6.0
	Virginia	14	2.8
	Guam	1	.2
	Total	91	18.2

APPENDIX B-1 cont'd.

Region	State	Number	Percentage[a]
West			
	Alaska	1	.2
	Arizona	1	.2
	California	51	10.2
	Colorado	6	1.2
	Hawaii	2	.4
	Montana	1	.2
	New Mexico	1	.2
	Oregon	3	.6
	Utah	1	.6
	Washington	17	3.4
	Wyoming	1	.2
	Total	85	17.0
Out of United States (Canada, Ireland)		7	1.4
Northeast Corridor (Virginia, District of Columbia, Maryland, New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts)		186	37.3

[a]Percentages are based on 498 cases.

APPENDIX B-2. Age of Respondents

Age (years)	Number	Percentage[a]
25	1	.2
26	2	.4
27	1	.2
28	7	1.4
29	5	1.0
30	11	2.2
31	17	3.4
32	15	3.0
33	20	4.0
34	29	5.8
35	32	6.4
36	25	5.0
37	37	7.4
38	27	5.4
39[b]	25	5.0
40[c]	25	5.0
41	18	3.6
42	16	3.2
43	19	3.8
44	19	3.8
45	16	3.2
46	12	2.4
47	15	3.0
48	12	2.4
49	9	1.8
50	10	2.0
51	5	1.0
52	8	1.6
53	4	.8
54	2	.2
55	3	.6
56	2	.4
57	4	.8
58	2	.4
59	5	1.0
60	5	1.0
61	4	.8
62	2	.4
64	1	.2
65	2	.4
66	1	.2
67	1	.2
68	1	.2
69	1	.2
70	1	.2

[a]Percentages are based on 479 respondents.

[b]Median = 39 years

[c]Mean = 40.68 years

APPENDIX B-3. Gender and Ethnicity of Respondents

Ethnic Origin	Male	Female
Native American	2 (.2)[a]	--
Asian/Pacific Islander	--	2 (.4)
Black	14 (2.8)	19 (3.8)
Chicano/Mexican American	1 (.2)	2 (.2)
Puerto Rican	2 (.4)	3 (.6)
Other Hispanic	2 (.4)	1 (.2)
White	219 (44.0)	228 (46.0)
Other	1 (.2)	1 (.2)

[a]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 498 respondents.

APPENDIX B-4. Education Level and License Held by Respondents

Degree and License Held	Number	Percentage
Highest degree		
Ph.D. (Social work)	23	4.6
Ed.D., J.D., Ph.D.	18	3.6
M.S.W., M.S.S., M.S.S.A.	395	79.2
M.A., M.S.	16	3.2
M.B.A.	5	1.0
M.P.H.	6	1.2
M.P.A.	5	1.0
B.S.W.	3	.6
B.A., B.S.	8	1.6
Other	19	3.8
Second-highest degree		
Ph.D. (Social work)	2	.4
Ed.D., J.D., Ph.D.	3	.6
M.S.W., M.S.S., M.S.S.A.	53	10.6
M.A., M.S.	27	5.4
M.B.A.	1	.2
M.P.H.	3	.6
M.P.A.	2	.4
B.S.W.	20	4.0
B.A., B.S.	235	47.1
Other	2	.4
None necessary	6	1.2
Third-highest degree		
M.S.W., M.S.S., M.S.S.A.	7	1.4
M.A., M.S.	2	.4
M. Div.	1	.2
B.S.W.	4	.8
B.A., B.S.	64	12.8
Other	1	.2
None necessary	229	45.9
Fourth-highest degree		
B.A., B.S.	10	2.0
None necessary	268	53.7

APPENDIX B-4. (cont'd.)

Degree and License Held	Number	Percentage
License held		
Alcoholism counselor	35	7.0
Teacher	7	1.4
Marriage and family counselor	14	2.8
Licensed practical nurse	2	.4
Registered nurse	2	.4
Insurance underwriter	1	.2
Music therapist	2	.4
General counselor	18	3.6

APPENDIX B-5. Years of Social Work Experience of Respondents

Social Work Experience (years)	Number	Percentage[a]
1	12	2.4
2	22	4.4
3	18	3.6
4	22	4.4
5	26	5.2
6	24	4.8
7	27	5.4
8	40	8.0
9	26	5.2
10[b]	50	10.0
11[c]	29	5.8
12	32	6.4
13	21	4.2
14	15	3.0
15	21	4.2
16	13	2.6
17	15	3.0
18	8	1.6
19	5	1.0
20	10	2.0
21	5	1.0
22	8	1.6
23	5	1.0
24	3	.6
25	8	1.6
26	1	.2
27	4	.8
28	3	.6
29	2	.4
30	3	.6
31	2	.4
34	3	.6
37	3	.6
38	1	.2
40	1	.2
45	1	.2
51	1	.2

[a]Percentages are based on 490 cases.

[b]Median = 10 years.

[c]Mean = 11.28 years.

APPENDIX C. Employment Data

APPENDIX C-1. Employment Functions of Respondents

Current Employment Function	Number	Percentage[a]
Direct service	200	40.1
Supervision	17	3.4
Management and administration	174	34.9
Policy development and analysis	14	2.8
Consultation	56	11.2
Education and Training	27	5.4
Planning	5	1.0
Research	4	.8

[a]Percentages are based on 497 cases.

APPENDIX C-2. Employment Settings of Respondent

Current Employment Setting	Number	Percentage[a]
Business (manufacturing)	70	14.0
Business (service)	60	12.0
Membership (union)	39	7.8
Membership (nonunion)	6	1.2
Private practice (self)	29	5.8
Private practice (group)	47	9.4
Social service agency	53	10.6
Hospital	96	19.2
Institution	18	3.6
Outpatient facility	30	6.0
Elementary or secondary school	4	.8
College or university	22	4.4
Government agency (local)	8	1.6
Government agency (state)	4	.8
Government agency (federal)	7	1.4
Voluntary professional association	1	.2

[a]Pecentages are based on 494 cases.

APPENDIX C-3. Employment Function by Gender

Employment Function	Gender	
	Male	Female
Direct service	100 (20.2)	100 (20.2)
Supervision	8 (1.6)	9 (1.8)
Management and administration	79 (15.9)	95 (19.2)
Policy development and analysis	10 (2.0)	4 (.8)
Consultation	30 (6.0)	26 (5.2)
Education and training	10 (2.0)	16 (3.2)
Planning	1 (.2)	4 (.8)
Research	1 (.2)	3 (.6)

[a]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 496 cases.

APPENDIX C-4. Employment Function by Ethnic Origin

Function	Ethnicity							
	Native American	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Black	Chicano/ Mexican American	Puerto Rican	Other Hispanic	White	Other
Direct service	1 (.2)[a]	—	12 (2.4)	—	1 (.2)	1 (.2)	182 (37.1)	1 (.2)
Supervision	—	—	2 (.4)	—	1 (.2)	—	14 (2.9)	—
Management and administration	1 (.2)	2 (.4)	13 (2.6)	1 (.2)	2 (.4)	1 (.2)	149 (30.3)	1 (.2)
Policy development and analysis	—	—	1 (.2)	—	1 (.2)	1 (.2)	11 (2.2)	—
Consultation	—	—	2 (.4)	2 (.4)	—	—	51 (10.4)	—
Education and training	—	—	2 (.4)	—	—	—	25 (5.1)	—
Planning	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 (1.0)	—
Research	—	—	—	—	—		4 (.8)	—

[a]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 490 cases.

APPENDIX C-5. Employment Function by Setting

Setting	Function							
	Direct Service	Supervision	Management and Administration	Policy development and analysis	Consultation	Education and training	Planning	Research
Business (manufacturing and service combined)	55 (11.2)[a]	3 (.6)	42 (8.6)	4 (.8)	16 (3.3)	4 (.8)	1 (.2)	2 (.4)
Union and membership organizations	13 (2.6)	4 (.8)	22 (4.5)	1 (.2)	3 (.6)	3 (.6)	—	—
Private practice (solo)	26 (5.3)	—	17 (3.5)	2 (.4)	26 (5.3)	2 (.4)	1 (.2)	1 (.2)
Social service agencies	15 (3.1)	1 (.2)	25 (5.1)	1 (.2)	2 (.4)	8 (1.6)	1 (.2)	—
Hospitals	52 (10.6)	5 (1.0)	30 (6.1)	—	1 (.2)	4 (.8)	—	1 (.2)
Institutions	4 (.8)	2 (.4)	6 (1.2)	4 (.8)	2 (.4)	—	—	—
Outpatient facilities/ nursing homes	19 (3.9)	2 (.4)	7 (1.4)	—	2 (.4)	—	—	—
Elementary/secondary schools	2 (.4)	—	2 (.4)	—	—	—	—	—
Colleges and universities	5 (1.0)	—	8 (1.6)	—	1 (.2)	5 (1.0)	1 (.2)	—
Government (all levels)	3 (.6)	—	10 (2.0)	2 (.4)	2 (.4)	1 (.2)	1 (.2)	—

[a]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 485 cases.

APPENDIX C-6. Employment Auspice of the Respondents

Current Employment Auspice	Number	Percentage[a]
Private Profit-making (proprietary)	160	32.1
Private nonprofit (sectarian)	10	2.0
Private nonprofit (nonsectarian)	137	27.5
Self-employed	35	7.0
Public sector (local)	33	6.6
Public sector (state)	22	4.4
Public sector (federal)	13	2.6
Military	86	17.2

[a]Percentages are based on 496 cases.

APPENDIX C-7. Employment Auspice by Gender

Employment Auspice	Gender		
	Female	Male	Total
Private profit-making (proprietary)	94 (19.0)[a]	66 (13.3)	160 (32.3)
Private nonprofit (sectarian)	5 (1.0)	5 (1.0)	10 (2.0)
Private nonprofit (nonsectarian)	86 (17.4)	51 (10.3)	137 (27.7)
Self-employed	20 (4.0)	15 (3.0)	35 (7.0)
Public sector (local)	21 (4.2)	12 (2.4)	33 (6.7)
Public sector (state)	12 (2.4)	10 (2.0)	22 (4.4)
Public sector (federal)	4 (.8)	8 (1.6)	12 (2.4)
Military	12 (2.4)	74 (14.9)	86 (17.4)

[a]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 475 cases.

APPENDIX C-8. Function by Auspice of Male Respondents

Employment Function	Employment Auspice: Private profit-making (proprietary)	Private nonprofit (sectarian)	Private nonprofit (nonsectarian)	Self-employed	Public sector (local)	Public sector (state)	Public sector (federal)	Military
Direct service	2 (9.5)[a]	3 (1.2)	13 (5.4)	5 (2.1)	5 (2.1)	2 (0.8)	2 (0.8)	47 (19.5)
Supervision	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (2.1)
Management and administration	23 (9.5)	2 (0.8)	28 (11.6)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.7)	5 (2.1)	4 (1.7)	13 (5.4)
Policy development and analysis	3 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	4 (1.7)
Consultation	13 (5.4)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	10 (4.1)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Education and training	3 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	2 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.2)
Planning	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Research	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)

[a]Numbers in parenthesis represent percentages based on 241 male respondents.

APPENDIX C-9. Function by Auspice of Female Respondents

Employment Function	Employment Auspice: Private profit-making (proprietary)	Private nonprofit (sectarian)	Private nonprofit (nonsectarian)	Self-employed	Public sector (local)	Public sector (state)	Public sector (federal)	Military
Direct service	40 (15.6)[a]	3 (1.2)	27 (10.5)	6 (2.3)	9 (3.5)	5 (2.0)	1 (0.4)	5 (2.0)
Supervision	2 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	5 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)
Management and administration	32 (12.5)	1 (0.4)	41 (16.0)	2 (0.8)	9 (3.5)	3 (1.2)	1 (0.4)	6 (2.3)
Policy development and analysisis	3 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Consultation	13 (5.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	9 (3.5)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Education and training	2 (0.8)	1 (0.4)	7 (2.7)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.8)	2 (0.8)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)
Planning	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	2 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Research	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)

[a]Numbers in parentheses represent percentages based on 256 respondents.

APPENDIX C-10. Reasons for Respondents Being Hired

Reason	Number	Percentage[a]
(A) Social work degree	84	17.9
(B) Social work job experience	73	15.6
(C) Other job experience	42	9.0
(A) and (B) above	128	27.4
(A) and (C) above	23	4.9
(B) and (C) above	53	11.3
(A), (B), and (C) above	64	13.7

[a]Percentages are based on 467 cases.

APPENDIX C-11. Training and Education Desired by Respondents

Education, skills, and knowledge wanted	Number	Percentage
General management	75	19.4[a]
Organizational development	38	9.8
Drug and substance abuse	26	6.7
Psychotherapy	24	6.2
Marriage and family counseling	22	5.7
D.S.W., Ph.D. level	19	4.9
Marketing	19	4.9
Alcohol abuse	18	4.7
M.B.A. degree	17	4.4
Personnel and personnel management	17	4.4
General administration	14	3.6
Computer use	10	2.6
Law and legal study	9	2.3
General clinical skills	7	1.8
Health administration	7	1.8
Research skills	6	1.6
Unclassified or unclear	6	1.6
Service planning	5	1.3
Medicine	5	1.3
Finance or accounting	4	1.0
Management instruction	4	1.0
Stress management	4	1.0
Psychology, any degree	4	1.0
Hypnosis or biofeedback	4	1.0
Statistics or research	3	0.8
Consulting skills	3	0.8
Teaching methods	3	0.8
Communications	3	0.8
Retirement counseling	2	0.5
Sex counseling	2	0.5
Second language	2	0.5
Neurolinguistics	2	0.5
Gerontology	2	0.5
Psychological testing	1	0.3
Program evaluation	1	0.3
Career counseling	1	0.3
Clinical service management	1	0.3
Program design	1	0.3
Death and dying	1	0.3
Sociology, any degree	1	0.3
Economics	1	0.3
M.S.W. degree	1	0.3
Biofeedback	1	0.3

[a]Percentages are based on the write-in responses of 386 individuals.

APPENDIX C-12. Job and Department Titles of Respondents

Title	Number	Percentage[a]
Job Title		
Chief executive officer	36	7.2
Director (unspecified)	49	9.8
Director (EAP)	118	23.6
Director (social services)	17	3.4
Director (social work)	23	4.6
Director/manager (counseling)	6	1.2
Director/manager (health services)	12	2.4
Director/manager (education and training)	8	1.6
Director/manage (personnel)	4	.8
Director (children's services)	1	.2
Director (human resources)	4	.8
Director/manager (industrial social work)	1	.2
Director/manager (alcoholism)	5	1.0
Chief/head social worker	11	2.2
Chief (mental health)	13	2.6
Chief (community services)	1	.2
Business administrator (corporate)	9	1.8
Union administrator	1	.2
Occupational social worker	4	.8
Industrial social worker	1	.2
Social worker	11	2.2
Social services worker	3	.6
Counselor (unspecified)	24	4.8
Employee assistance worker	25	5.0
Consultant (self-employed)	50	10.0
Family therapist	2	.4
Therapist/psychotherapist	34	6.8
Career/work counselor	6	1.2
Health services worker	1	.2
Case manager	1	.2
Organizational development specialist	5	1.0
Human resources representative	2	.4
College professor (any rank)	2	.4
College staff (noninstructional)	2	.4
Staff trainer	3	.6
Unclassifiable	3	.6
Department title		
Social services	24	4.9[b]
Employee assistance	128	26.6
Social work	23	4.8
Family practice	10	2.0
Community affairs	3	.6
Industrial social work	2	.4
Human resources	25	5.2
Personal services	10	2.0

APPENDIX C-12, cont'd.

Title	Number	Percentage[a]
Counseling services	16	3.3
Educational (school-related) services	4	.8
Career/training	8	1.6
Clinical services	2	.4
Elderly/geriatric	1	.2
Children's services	1	.2
Alcoholism/substance abuse	5	1.0
Medical health/safety	47	9.8
Mental health	59	12.2
Private practice (consultant)	54	11.2
Private practice (clinical)	3	.6
Legal/special services	1	.2
Clinical treatment	2	.4
Personnel department	13	2.6
Management	5	1.0
Social work/social welfare (university)	2	.4
Organizational development	2	.4
Unclassifiable	32	6.6

[a]Percentages are based on 498 cases.

[b]Percentages are based on 482 cases.

APPENDIX C-13. Listing of Needs, Issues, and Problems Dealt with by Respondents

	Need[a]							
	1		2		3		4	
Needs, Issues, Problems	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Alcoholism	381	76.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drug addiction	1	.2	222	44.6	—	—	1	.2
Marital or family problems	44	8.8	135	27.1	193	38.8	1	.2
Child care	5	1.0	6	1.2	14	2.8	45	9.0
Mental health	11	2.2	36	7.2	125	25.1	124	24.9
Legal matters	2	.4	3	.6	12	2.4	12	2.4
Financial matters	8	1.6	6	1.2	9	1.8	11	2.2
Job frustrations or stress	18	3.6	19	3.8	35	7.0	115	23.1
Sex or race discrimination	1	.2	7	1.4	3	.6	2	.4
Health problems	7	1.4	10	2.0	11	2.2	31	6.2
Physical fitness	—	—	4	.8	4	.8	3	.6
Physical disability	1	.2	2	.4	2	.4	3	.6
Mental retardation	—	—	2	.4	2	.4	1	.2
Aging	—	—	3	.6	5	1.0	5	1.0
Recreation and leisure	—	—	—	—	4	.8	2	.4
Job security	1	.2	11	2.2	16	3.2	13	2.6
Housing/shelter/food	—	—	2	.4	7	1.4	11	2.2
Job transition	1	.2	1	.2	13	2.6	23	4.6
Wages and work conditions	1	.2	—	—	2	.4	3	.6
Organizational development	10	2.0	1	.2	2	.4	10	2.0
Public benefits	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	.2
Education and training	1	.2	—	—	1	.2	3	.6
Sexual dysfunction	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	.4
Physical or sexual abuse	—	—	1	.2	1	.2	3	.6
Social impacts	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	.2
Conflict resolution	—	—	—	—	1	.2	1	.2
Missing data[b]	5	1.9	27	5.4	36	7.2	71	14.3
Total	498	100.0	498	100.0	498	100.0	498	100.0

[a]The designations in the table (Need 1, 2, etc.) simply reflect the order in which they were listed in the survey and not the ranking assigned by a given respondent. However, the total number of times a problem was mentioned can be taken as a rough indicator of importance among the respondents in the sample.

[b]The number of missing cases is included in this table, since respondents did not always list four problems or needs.

APPENDIX C-14. Prospects of Hiring More Social Workers as Given by Respondents in all Employment Auspices

Respondent's Auspice	Response		
	Yes	No	Do Not Know
Private Profit-making (proprietary)	43 (8.9)[a]	76 (15.8)	34 (7.1)
Private nonprofit (sectarian)	3 (.6)	5 (1.0)	2 (.4)
Private noprofit (nonsectarian)	51 (10.6)	48 (10)	36 (7.5)
Self-employed	6 (1.2)	12 (2.4)	14 (3.0)
Public sector (local)	9 (1.9)	17 (3.5)	6 (1.2)
Public sector (state)	5 (1.0)	5 (1.0)	12 (2.5)
Public sector (federal)	5 (1.0)	6 (1.2)	2 (.4)
Military	15 (3.1)	50 (10.4)	19 (4.0)

[a]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 481 cases.

APPENDIX C-15. Prospects of Hiring More Social Workers as Given by Respondents in all Employment Settings

Respondent's Setting	Response		
	Yes	No	Do Not Know
Business (manufacturing)	10 (2.1)[a]	45 (9.4)	14 (2.9)
Business (service)	18 (3.8)	21 (4.4)	20 (4.2)
Membership (union)	13 (2.7)	20 (4.2)	5 (1.0)
Membership (nonunion)	1 (.2)	3 (.6)	2 (.4)
Private practice (self)	6 (1.3)	11 (2.3)	6 (1.3)
Private practice (group)	18 (3.8)	14 (2.9)	12 (2.5)
Social service agency	18 (3.8)	15 (3.1)	20 (4.2)
Hospital	21 (4.4)	44 (9.2)	29 (6.1)
Institution	6 (1.3)	10 (2.1)	1 (.2)
Outpatient facility	12 (2.5)	15 (3.1)	3 (.6)
Elementary or secondary school	1 (.2)	2 (.4)	1 (.2)
College or university	5 (1.0)	10 (2.1)	7 (1.5)
Government agency (local)	5 (1.0)	3 (.6)	—
Government agency (state)	—	2 (.4)	2 (.4)

APPENDIX C-15 cont'd.

Respondent's Setting	Response		
	Yes	No	Do Not Know
Government agency (federal)	2 (.4)	2 (.4)	3 (.6)
Voluntary professional association	--	1 (.2)	--

[a]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 479 cases.

APPENDIX D. Income Data

APPENDIX D-1. Level and Sources of Income of Respondents

Income	Number	Percentage
Annual Income		
Less than $10,000	7	1.4[a]
$10,000-$14,000	8	1.6
$15,000-$19,999	29	5.8
$20,000-$24,999	75	15.0
$25,000-$29,999	75	15.0
$30,000-$34,999	88	17.6
$35,000-$39,999	83	16.6
$40,000-$44,999	49	9.8
$45,000-$49,999	15	3.0
$50,000-$54,999	20	4.0
$55,000-$59,999	17	3.4
$60,000-$64,999	8	1.6
$65,000 or more	18	3.6
Income Source		
Employer (not self-employed)	409	82.0[b]
Self-employed (private practice)	22	4.4
Self-employed (consulting)	37	7.4
Multiple sources	28	5.6

[a]Percentages based on 492 cases.

[b]Percentages based on 496 cases.

APPENDIX D-2. Percentage of Income from Occupational Social Work

Percentage of Income	Number	Percentage[a]
Less than 10	18	23.8
10 - 19	17	3.6
20-29	18	3.9
30-39	14	2.9
40-49	11	2.4
50-59	21	4.4
60-69	7	1.5
70-79	17	3.6
80-89	25	5.3
90-99	50	10.6
All income	273	58.0

[a]Percentages based on 471 cases.

APPENDIX D-3. Income Levels for Male and Female Respondents

Annual Income	Gender	
	Male	Female
Less than $10,000	6 (1.2)	1 (.2)
$10,000-$19,999	26 (5.3)	11 (2.2)
$20,000-$29,999	96 (19.6)	53 (10.8)
$30,000-$39,999	82 (16.7)	89 (18.0)
$40,000-$49,999	18 (3.6)	46 (9.4)
$50,000-$59,999	17 (3.5)	20 (4.0)
$60,000 or more	9 (1.8)	17 (3.5)

[a]Median income for females, $24,945; for males, $33,649.

[b]Numbers in parentheses are percentages based on 491 cases.

APPENDIX D-4. Median Income in Relation to Auspice and Gender

Auspice	Gender	
	Male	Female
Profit-making (proprietary)	$43,043 (n = 63)	$35,920 (n = 93)
Nonprofit (sectarian)	$23,749 (n = 5)	$22,499 (n = 5)
Nonprofit (nonsectarian)	$30,453 (n = 50)	$26,028 (n = 85)
Self-employed	$37,499 (n = 15)	$27,499 (n = 20)
Public sector	$37,499 (n = 30)	$30,713 (n = 38)
Military	$35,924 (n = 74)	$29,999 (n = 12)

APPENDIX D-5. Median Income in Relation Setting and Gender

Setting	Gender	
	Male	Female
Business (manufacturing)	$44,090 (n = 34)	$35,936 (n = 35)
Business (service)	$35,624 (n = 17)	$32,916 (n = 43)
Membership (union)	$30,832 (n = 13)	$24,544 (n = 26)
Membership (nonunion)	$44,499 (n = 2)	$24,999 (n = 4)
Private practice (self)	$36,249 (n = 11)	$32,499 (n = 18)
Private practice (group)	$41,874 (n = 21)	$32,499 (n = 26)
Social service agency	$28,124 (n = 25)	$22,499 (n = 27)
Hospital	$35,624 (n = 59)	$30,681 (n = 37)
Institution	$39,999 (n = 14)	$24,999 (n = 4)
Outpatient facility	$33,570 (n = 24)	$24,999 (n = 6)
Elementary or secondary school	$29,999 (n = 2)	$39,999 (n = 2)
College or university	$31,249 (n = 7)	$26,249 (n = 15)
Government agency (all levels)	$37,499 (n = 9)	$31,249 (n = 10)

APPENDIX D-6. Median Income in Relation to Function and Gender

Function	Gender	
	Male	Female
Direct service	$34,443 (n = 100)	$27,104 (n = 99)
Supervision	$37,499 (n = 8)	$24,165 (n = 9)
Management and administration	$38,035 (n = 9)	$33,288 (n = 95)
Policy analysis	$44,999 (n = 10)	$44,999 (n = 4)
Consultation	$41,249 (n = 30)	$32,499 (n = 26)
Education and training	$31,665 (n = 10)	$21,664 (n = 16)
Planning	$12,500 (n = 1)	$24,999 (n = 4)
Research	$32,500 (n = 1)	$32,500 (n = 3)

APPENDIX D-7. Median Income in Relation to Census Region

Census Region		Number	Percentage
Northeast			
	Less than $10,000	4	1.8
	$10,000-$14,000	6	2.7
	$15,000-$19,999	17	7.6
	$20,000-$24,999	36	16.1
	$25,000-$29,999	35	15.7
	$30,000-$34,999	34	15.2
	$35,000-$39,999	30	13.5
	$40,000-$44,999	20	9.0
	$45,000-$49,999	6	2.7
	$50,000-$54,999	11	4.9
	$55,000-$59,999	9	4.0
	$60,000-$64,999	2	0.9
	$65,000 or more	9	4.0
Total		219	
North Central			
	$15,000-$19,999	7	7.7
	$20,000-$24,999	14	15.4
	$25,000-$29,999	16	17.6
	$30,000-$30,999	13	14.3
	$35,000-$39,999	17	18.7
	$40,000-$44,999	10	11.0
	$45,000-$49,999	3	3.3
	$50,000-$54,999	3	3.3
	$55,000-$59,999	1	1.1
	$60,000-$64,999	1	1.1
	$65,000 or more	6	6.6
Total		91	

APPENDIX D-7 cont'd.

Census Region		Number	Percentage
South			
	Less than $10,000	1	1.1
	$15,000-$19,999	1	1.1
	$20,000-$24,999	13	14.3
	$25,000-$29,999	14	15.4
	$30,000-$34,999	24	26.4
	$35,000-$39,999	18	19.8
	$40,000-$44,999	6	6.6
	$45,000-$49,999	2	2.2
	$50,000-$54,999	1	1.1
	$55,000-$59,999	3	3.3
	$60,000-$64,999	3	3.3
	$65,000 or more	3	3.3
Total		89	
West			
	Less than $10,000	2	2.4
	$10,000-$14,999	1	1.2
	$15,000-$19,999	4	4.8
	$20,000-$24,999	12	14.3
	$25,000-$29,999	9	10.7
	$30,000-$34,999	15	17.9
	$35,000-$39,999	16	19.0
	$40,000-$44,999	10	11.9
	$45,000-$49,999	4	4.8
	$50,000-$54,999	4	4.8
	$55,000-$59,999	4	4.8
	$60,000-$64,999	2	2.4
Total		83	

APPENDIX D-8. Income in Relation to Gender and Ethnic Origin

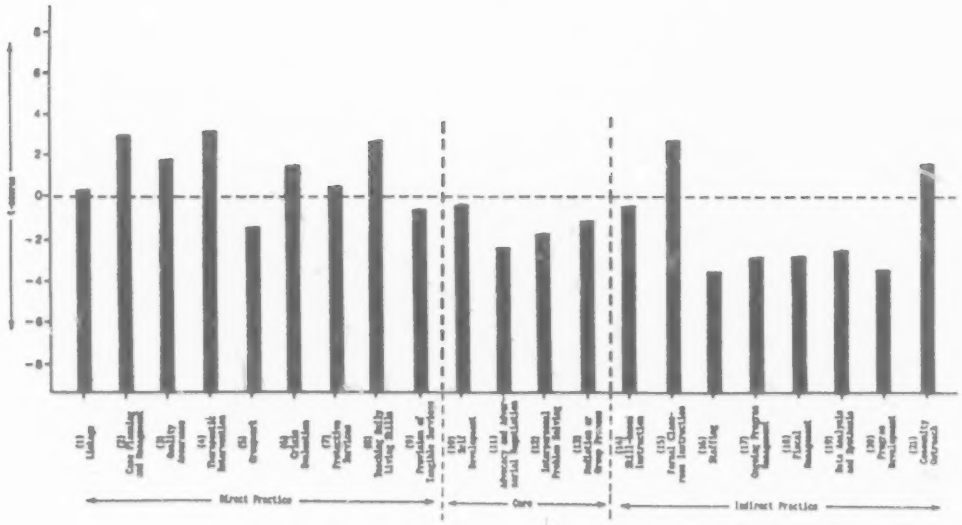
Ethnic Origin	Gender	
	Male	Female
Native American	$39,999 (n = 2)	--
Asian/Pacific Islander	--	$29,999 (n = 2)
Black	$41,666 (n = 14)	$31,666 (n = 19)
Chicano/Mexican American	$57,250 (n = 1)	$24,999 (n = 2)
Puerto Rican	$35,000 (n = 2)	$32,500 (n = 3)
Other hispanic	$39,999 (n = 2)	$22,500 (n = 1)
White	$35,187 (n = 219)	$29,624 (n = 228)
Other	$37,500 (n = 1)	$42,500 (n = 1)

APPENDIX E. Selected Job Profiles

The profiles contained in this section are presented to demonstrate to the reader the diversity of job patterns contained in the sample. These profiles represent the pricipal practice functions as they were carried out in all of the major settings covered by the survey. Because of the common scale, they can be directly compared with each other and with the profiles of the Employee Assistance Program workers presented in the body of this report.

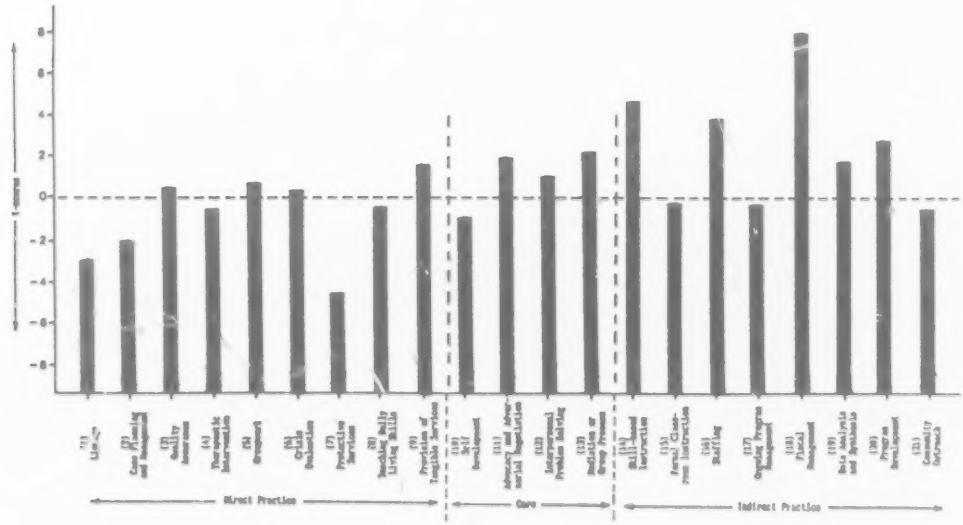
APPENDIX E-1. Profile of Private, Profit-making Direct Service Workers

(n = 61)



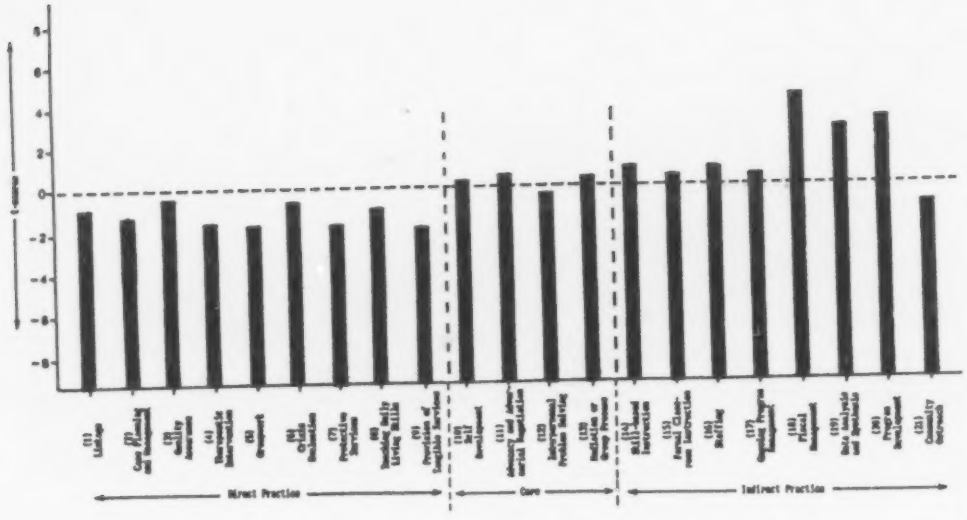
APPENDIX E-2. Profile of Private, Profit-making Supervisors

(n = 3)



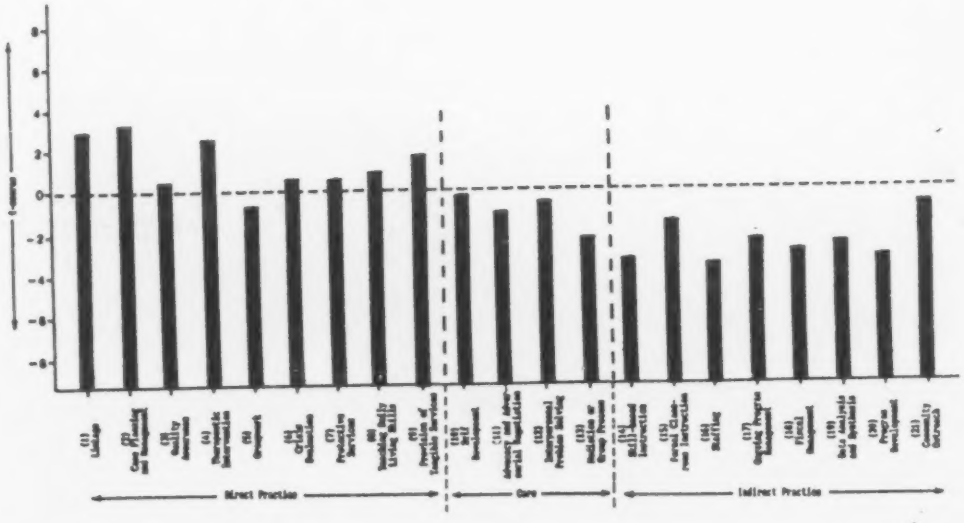
APPENDIX E-3. Profile of Private, Profit-making Managers

(n = 54)



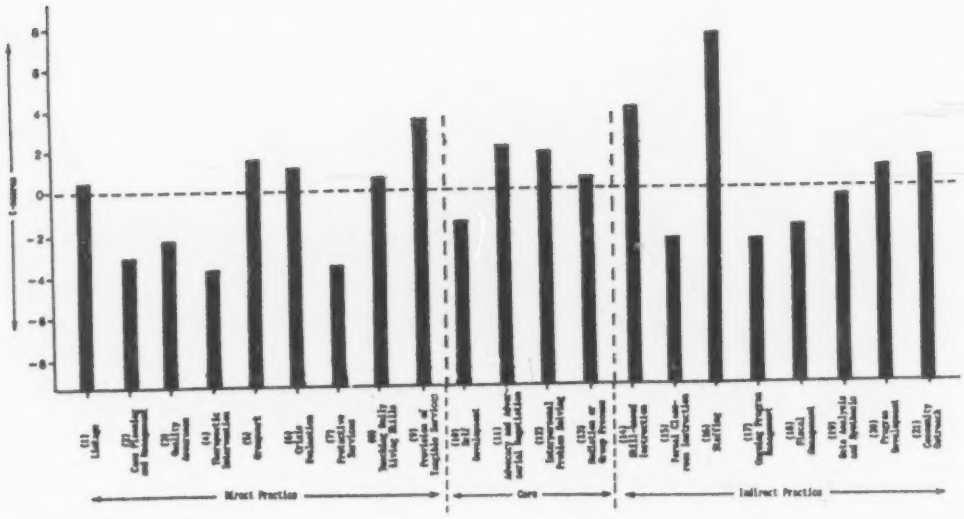
APPENDIX E-4. Profile of Private, Non-profit Direct Service Workers

(n = 45)



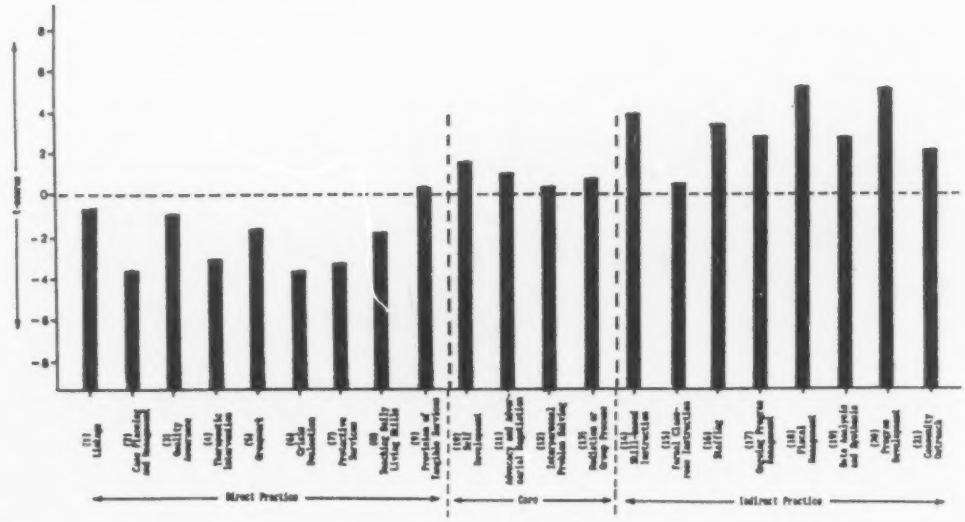
APPENDIX E-5. Profile of Private, Non-profit Supervisors

(n = 7)



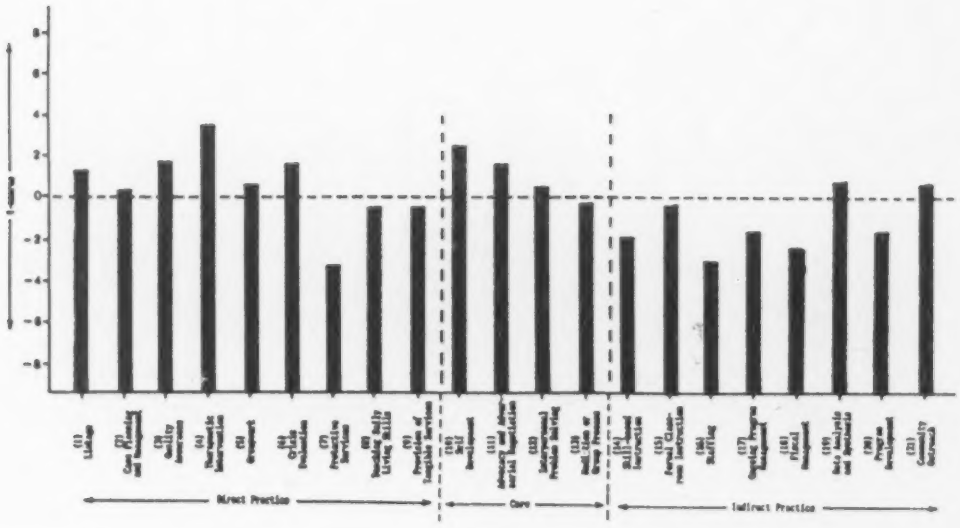
APPENDIX E-6. Profile of Private, Non-profit Managers

(n = 70)



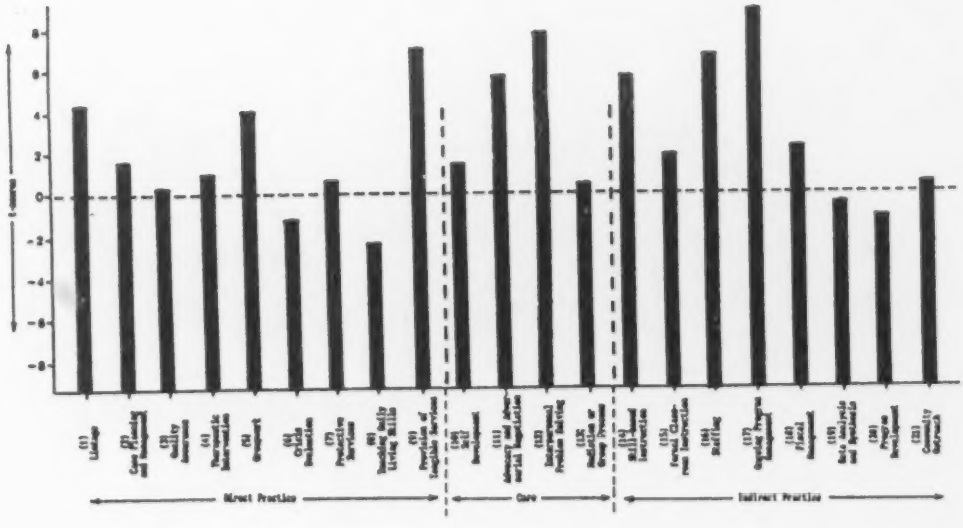
APPENDIX E-7. Profile of Public Sector Direct Service Workers

($\underline{n}$ = 23)



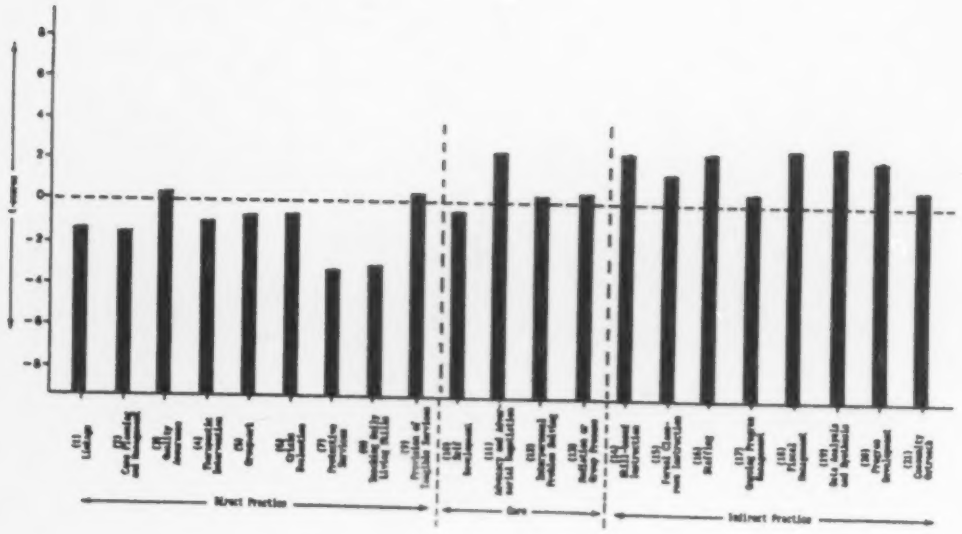
APPENDIX E-8. Profile of Public Sector Supervisors

($\underline{n}$ = 2)



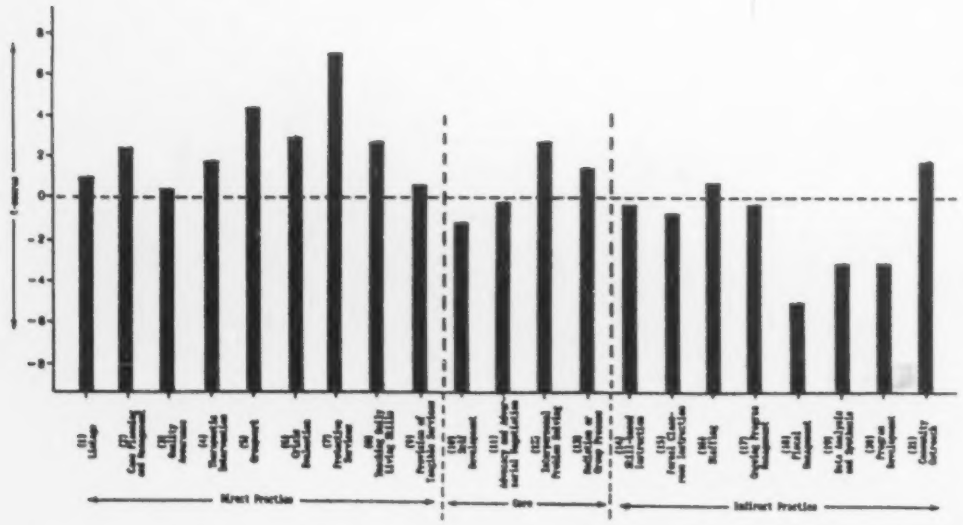
APPENDIX E-9. Profile of Public Sector Managers

(n = 25)



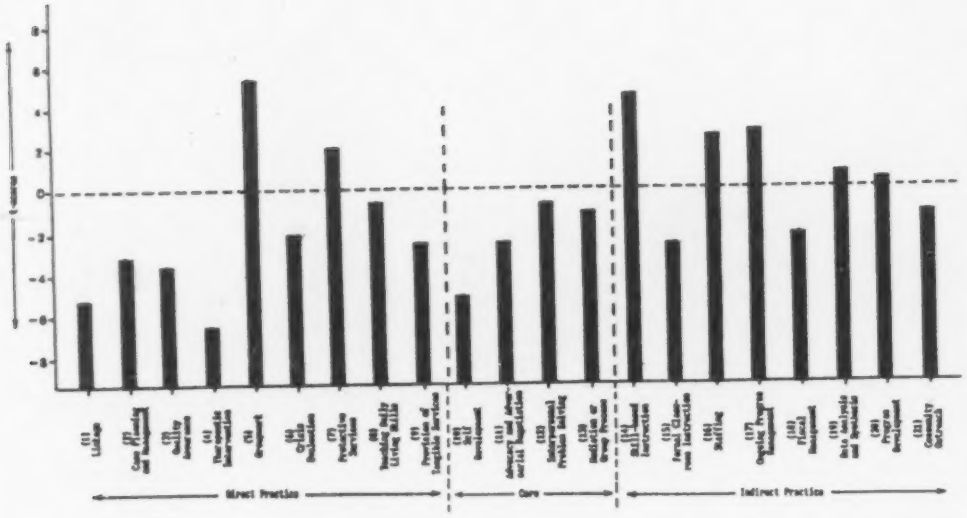
APPENDIX E-10. Profile of Military Direct Service Workers

(n = 53)



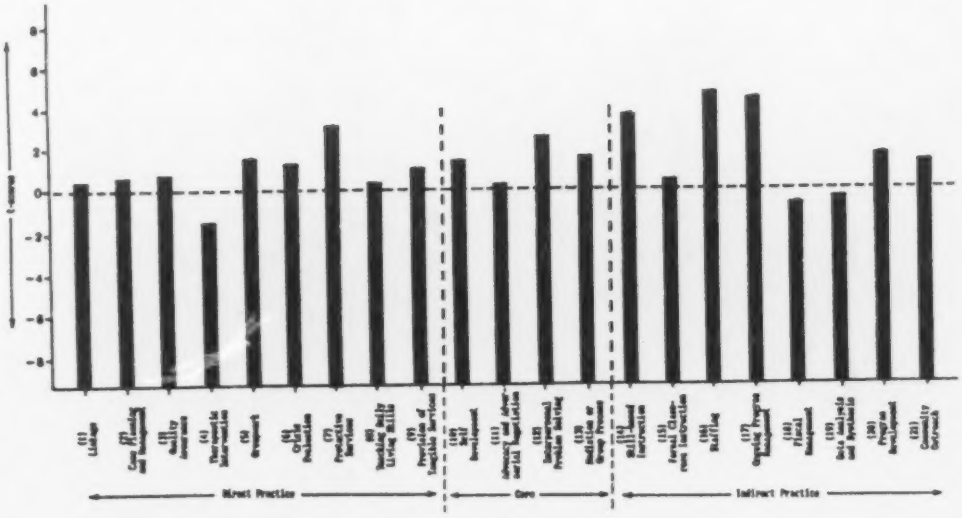
APPENDIX E-11. Profile of Military Supervisors

(n = 4)



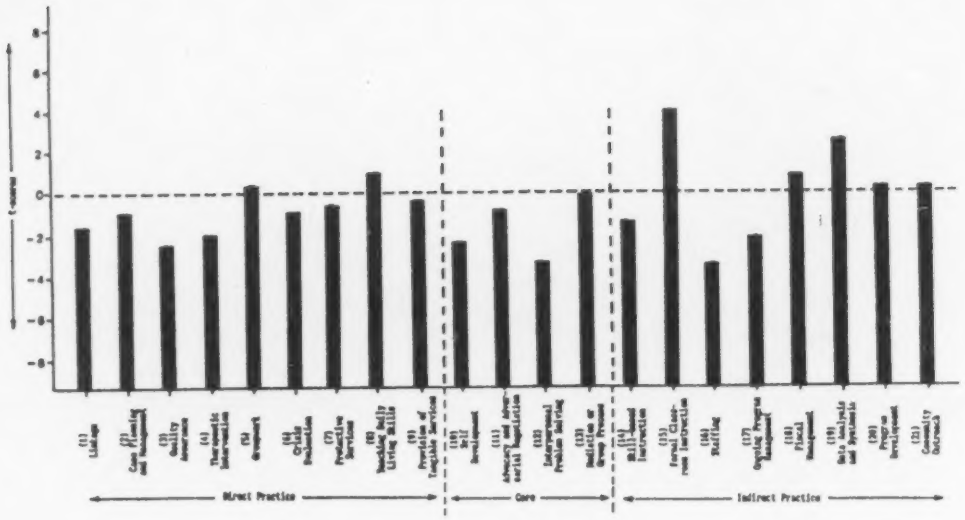
APPENDIX E-12. Profile of Military Managers

(n = 18)



APPENDIX E-13. Profile of Self-employed Workers (All levels)

($\underline{n}$ = 32)



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